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EDITORIAL

THE 1957 balance sheet is published elsewhere in this issue. The overall credit balance standing at £1,618 is almost double what it was in 1951 and shows, probably, no good financial progress as does any other journal in the country. It will be noted, too, the subscription list has not been mailed.

Amateur editors of this journal do not have an enviable task. They are not given a course in editing and they do not, unfortunately, receive the unswerving support of medical and dental officers. Backbiting arises, from time to time, but very rarely in the way of constructive criticism or encouragement. However, if they reap mostly rewards on earth, they reap a much more valuable reward in Heaven. The outgoing editors are grateful for permission to publish the following lines\* which they feel confident, apply to all medical editors.

The Editor closed "Yare the Heavenly Gate,  
His fingers pinched and cold  
He bowed before the Man of Fate,  
Seeking entrance to the Fold  
"What have you done," Sir Peter asked  
"To gain entrance here?"  
"I was the Journal's editor, Sir,  
For many a weary year."  
The greedy gates swung open wide,  
As Peter passed the toll  
"Come in and glorify your name!" he roared,  
"You've had your share of H—!"

\*Quoted at a meeting of the Union Internationale De La Presse Médicale, at London, September 1957 by Professor William Gordon of Dublin.

## Abstract

# A BRIEF REVIEW OF AVIATOR'S DECOMPRESSION SICKNESS AND THE HIGH ALTITUDE SELECTION TEST

BY

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It may come as a surprise to some that decompression from sea level to high altitude can give rise to an equal variety of symptoms as those experienced by a deep sea diver while ascending to the surface. Such is the variety of these symptoms that Belinda (1955) has remarked that "the constant gas bubble is replacing the apnoeic state as the great monster."<sup>1</sup> In this paper various aspects of aviation decompression sickness are considered while other hazards of a reduced barometric pressure such as hypoxia, ear and sinus barotrauma and hyperventilation are excluded.

## HISTORICAL SKETCH

- (1876) Robert Boyle observed a "compressible bubble moving to and fro" in a viper's eye while the animal was in atmospheric equilibrium.
- (1877) Brindeman (1877) postulated the possibility that decompression sickness might develop on an altitude greater than 20,000 feet.
- (1911) Margens was the first to suffer and named the symptoms of gas pain as a decompression chamber at 30,000 feet (Barach et al. 1951).
- (1933) Dr. J. W. Hume suffered from severe parosmia in a decompression chamber at 33,000 ft. (Brookley and Lowland 1933).
- (1943) A high incidence of gas pains or "bends" was reported on fourteen times flying at 33,000 ft. and a number of forced descents had to be made while two out of three Republic pilots working pressure cabin decompression aircraft flying at 42,000 feet suffered from severe incapacitating bends (Vickers 1951).
- (1951) With the introduction of pressure cabins the incidence fell sharply but on 1950-52 and 1953-54 the possibility of flying in unpressurized aircraft or from outside cabins of cabin pressure in flight. At the time of writing at least 3 deaths in the air due to decompression sickness have been recorded (Mason 1953) three of which on the open literature (Hazardous Journeys and Dangers 1954). Although these numbers are small they do give a measure of the hazard and the incomplete solution of the problem.

#### THE COMPARISON BETWEEN ADVANCED AND DEEPER OR CANNON WORKERS, DECOMPRESSION SICKNESS

A comparison has been made between the symptoms experienced by four divers when subjected to either too rapid decompression from high atmosphere or to simulated altitude. It was observed that the areas affected by pain are consistently similar irrespective of the conditions for bubble formation: i.e. in simulated altitude from nitrogen normally present in the body on following decompression from a nitrogen previously absorbed by the body at high pressure. All the musculoskeletal symptoms can be explained on the basis of intravascular and extravascular gas bubbles and fibrils (1935) went on to show that a similar volume of nitrogen or other natural gas was available for bubble formation if the subject has either spent 30 minutes at 132 feet (5 Atmospheres absolute) followed by rapid decompression or at 38 500 feet (15/3 Atmosphere absolute) following rapid ascent. One distinguishing fact about the diver's bubble is that carbon dioxide and water vapour constitute at least 30 per cent of its volume at 38 000 ft. while above 45 000 ft. (fluorescent pressure < 45 mm. — vapour pressure of the body fluids is 37° C.) bubbles of water vapour can also be seen quickly moving contributions of nitrogen, oxygen and carbon dioxide leading to complete blockage of the circulation.

The another also differs from the diver in that all his tissues are thoroughly saturated with nitrogen at ambient absolute pressures while the diver is usually only at depth long enough fully to saturate certain tissue areas. Thus, on decompression, only certain areas in the diver are super-saturated and along with the occasional difficulties of effective recompression, make a diver more prone to spinal cord and lung lesions than the aviator.

#### THE NEED OF A HIGH ALTITUDE SELECTION TEST

To avoid these hazards two measures are possible. The first is pre-exposure by breathing 100 per cent oxygen for four hours or more which removes sufficient nitrogen to prevent bubble formation and gives complete protection below 45 000 feet. The procedure is inconvenient, expensive in the use of oxygen and time, and finally almost impossible to fit into an operational programme. However, one company in the U.S.A. is reported to have made preoxygenation compulsory for its test pilots (Fickinger *et al.*, 1935).

The second is the pre-selection of flying personnel with a view to excluding those particularly susceptible to decompression sickness from flying above 38 000 ft. This height has been chosen as symptoms very rarely develop below this level although bubbles are present at this altitude (Roodal 1944). A degree of selection is already present in the high medical standards required for air crew and selection cannot be extended at this point beyond excluding those severely overweight. A patent by-pass valve is a definite extra hazard as the lung filter is removed for gas and fat emboli, but the detection of this abnormality is not easy without the use of auxiliary techniques. Data are

being planned with a mind to cutting down gasping/straining levels and those that would lead to obesity.

Unfortunately susceptibility varies with a number of known and unknown factors, and the problem is to arrange the test so that it will bear some relationship to the individual's susceptibility on the one hand, and to operational requirements on the other. An interesting example was of an individual who was exposed to 43-600 ft. for 30 minutes per day for 62 exposures. He only experienced one attack of bends in the first 75 runs but symptoms got worse after this, and he finally suffered hematuria on the 83rd run (Hall *et al.* 1955). With accurate altitude it is possible to induce bends at the majority of air crew, a result which is of no help in selection but of value in indoctrination.

The evaluation of pre-selection tests is a disputed one, partly because the test has been used in a manner of measuring the incidence and frequency of decompression sickness, while the application of the results obtained, to the final selection of air crew to duty, has been determined by considerations of man-power. On the other side is the contention that no test so far designed with the time available will indicate the real susceptibility of the individual in a particular situation. This difficult subject has been reviewed by Henry and Ivy (1955).

The Royal Navy has been fortunate in that the requirements for bomber crews are minimal and that there is no need for air crew, found too susceptible, to the anti-submarine and helicopter roles. With these considerations in mind the pre-selection test at the Royal Naval Air Medical School has not been altered for over seven years. It has been retained, not only on the grounds of pre-selection, but also for the unique opportunity it gives for the indoctrination of air crew in the early symptoms of decompression sickness, and the use of oxygen and other safety equipment at high altitude. They leave with an enforced and handy respect for high altitude.

#### THE HIGH ALTITUDE SELECTION TEST

The present test consists of three exposures to 37,000 ft. in a decompression chamber, with no enforced exercise on alternate days in one week, repeated every five years. This altitude, reached in seven minutes from take-off, breasting 100 per cent. oxygen, has been chosen because, although a higher altitude would reveal more symptoms it would introduce the complication of having to breathe oxygen under pressure.

One hour has been chosen as a reasonable time to discover the majority of susceptibles although it is well known that symptoms continue to occur up to two hours after exposure.

From fig. 1 showing the incidence and distribution of various symptoms it can be seen that over the last three tests only there is a steadily decreasing incidence of symptoms. If the exposure time were extrapolated for another 60 minutes only another 1 per cent. of subjects would suffer from serious

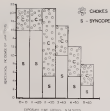


FIG. 4.—Barving the incidence of the most serious symptoms against increasing length of exposure.

syncope. However, there is much to be learned from these reports, if a high proportion of acceptable test is to be discovered, but it has been a matter of policy to keep a standard test over the years so that no worth could be obtained. The number of air crew attending for investigation, because of severe symptoms in the air, has been of the order of one every three years, a rate which, considering the many variables, can hardly improve the utility of the test. To eliminate some variables, then, rules to exclude are given. This is another arbitrary decision the usefulness of which is discussed later.

#### CATEGORY A

The basis of categorization is a functional one and not necessarily related to any particular type of vascular or tissue bubble formation. Three categories are used according to the disabilities suffered.

Category "A." Maximal symptoms and signs such as transient action in the limbs, gressor and mental status due to tissue bubbles. Decent within the hour is necessary. Approximately 50 per cent. of air crew fall into this category.

Category "B." Mild symptoms. Here the subject has ample warning of the onset of symptoms which would allow him to descend to a safer altitude. The tissue bubbles develop within and around the joints, giving out a "break," relieved pain is common and may lead to other weakness of the

heads. Bends and joint injury which hinders nitrogen elimination from the tissues, movements and stretching of the joints, accompanying bubble formation, are the main predisposing factors. As the joint becomes distended, due to its under the loads being around 35 000 ft. but at no time is the subject seriously disabled by the symptoms, and he is allowed a further run in case he may be susceptible to stress symptoms which were masked by an early descent due to loads. Mistaking has been shown by the fact vital capacity tracing giving a picture of frequent shivers although there were no pulmonary symptoms. Occasionally gas discomfort may not be cleared, making descent necessary (see table).

Such a category does not allow a pilot to fly above 30 000 ft. unpressured. If pressurization does fail he has experience of bends and will be able to descend before they are severe. Approximately 20 per cent. of air crew fall into this category.

Category "C" Severe symptoms. Here the subject suffers from such symptoms as to render him incapable of a controlled descent of his aircraft. The symptoms are widespread, referred by rapid descent, with occasional aspects at ground level. The subject is not allowed another exposure and is unfit to fly above 30 000 ft. whether pressurized or not. Less than 10 per cent. of air crew fall into this category.

As with a duration assumes the aviator's sphere of operation to low altitudes, and is often regarded subconsciously as an inability to "take it," the symptoms and aetiology are discussed in more detail below.

Four broad groups can be defined although in a few cases it is difficult to assign them exclusively to one group.

### (1) Syncope

(a) Uncomplicated Syncope. The subject has a momentary sense of dizziness, begins to vomit profusely and quickly loses consciousness. Recovery is rapid on descent, but he remains pale, the blood pressure and pulse-rate falling by about 30 points from "pre-flight" levels. This is a type of syncope (faint) encouraged possibly by auto-emulsion at a critical level causing cardiovascular spasm. The part played by anxiety cannot be excluded, a high proportion occurring on first runs.

(b) Syncope Preceded by Central Nervous System Signs. These vary from autonomic, diplopia, tunnel vision, hyperaesthesia, numbness and spastic types of mono- and hemiplegia. Convulsions are common, but rarely of the grand mal variety. Vomiting into the oxygen mask is a serious complication. Faint is absent but recognizable symptoms are constant during and after descent. Upsets in the circulation are due to washed air in the pressure group. Again visual signs is implicated rather than cardiovascular bubbles and the rare occurrence of spinal cord symptoms is confined to dives decompression sickness makes this group particularly interesting. Although no retrospective data is available they may represent those who are particularly susceptible to cerebrovascular spasm a negative diagnosis.

(1) *Spontaneous Flaccidity* by Severn (1946). In these subjects the gas is absorbed and liquid spreads within a minute to develop the first (arterial) constriction bands; the inevitable collapse and descent is often made before this phase. Although there is some warning of the onset it is too short a period of useful consciousness. The rapidity with which the bubbles develop is occasionally demonstrated by breathing after the exposure, an indication of capillary rupture.

#### (2) *Choke*

The first sensation is a burning subcostal pain followed by increasing dyspnoea. A deep inspiration at this phase will induce a paroxysm of coughing, with cyanosis and constantly pallor and cyanosis. Tinnitus may contribute to the latter. The symptoms are worst on descent but, difficulty in breathing, cyanosis, coughing, especially on smoking, continues for some hours at ground level. The mechanism of this dyspnoea is probably a multiple one. Aetiole (1955) seeks to explain the whole syndrome on the basis of intravascular bubbles collecting in the pulmonary venous circuit, drawing a parallel between the dyspnoea suffered by dogs following the injection of starch granules and the symptoms of choke. However, Fenn *et al.* (1951) are quite emphatic that the primary lesion is in the mucous membrane of the bronchopulmonary passages and maintain the close relationship between skin lesions and the syndrome of choke. The concept of the "pulmonary rash" fits in well with the symptoms of the burning pain (cf. acute tracheo-bronchitis), the persistence of cyanosis and the late development of symptoms following decompression. Vital capacity tests carried out by the writer and performed following decompression suggest similar changes to those found in bronchial asthma and pulmonary edema.

#### (3) *Altimeter Dysnoea*

The victim requires a certain amount of gas at ground level, this volume is increased by about five times on ascent; the capacity of subjects have little difficulty in clearing this collection, especially after repeated runs. A few have been unable to clear themselves at all, have suffered such violent pain or respiratory difficulty with a nasal discharge, that immediate descent was necessary. If this occurs on repeated runs it would be a hazard in flight, particularly if explosive decompression took place at less of cabin pressure (e.g. less than 9.1 mm.). Thus the cause in this case is partly due to nitrogen passing into gas spaces but mainly to an anatomical abnormality slowing tissue resorption. Flight above 30,000 ft. is a definite hazard.

#### (4) *Post-Decompression Syncope*

This is a rare sequel to decompression sickness but probably represents a part of a train of events which has led to death in the rare cases mentioned above. The syndrome cannot be predicted from the severity of the decompression sickness suffered or avoided and may be followed by a quiescent period of several hours with few symptoms. The aetiology is twofold, in

times, persistent neurological and other focal signs demonstrate the possibility of gas emboli persisting at ground level and immediate continued compression to more than one atmosphere absolute is indicated. It cannot be denied that the physical and physiological arguments for the persistence of bubbles at ground level are complex and not proven, but continued compression may resolve focal symptoms and should be given a therapeutic trial. In other words more diffuse symptoms of severe peripheral shock and cerebral edema develop. These effects could be the result of widespread tissue damage suggested by Minard (1943). In a study of 4 fatal cases of decompression sickness Haymaker and Johnson (1955) found evidence for emboli in 4, and went on to deduce that this finding meant cellular disruption, probably in the bone marrow, with the release of lipase, potassium ions, peptides and histamine-like substances into the circulation. A parallel could be drawn between the "crush syndrome" and its delayed effects due to muscle and tissue damage and the intracellular "burst syndrome". In one subject who suffered from post decompression collapse a raised serum potassium level was found (Fryer, 1964). If a case occurs following flight, treatment should be initiated immediately along the following lines:

- (i) Where there are persistent focal signs a trial of further compression should be given.
- (ii) Where shock predominates, treatment of peripheral vascular failure may include oxygen, IV fluids, noradrenalin and adrenal corticoids.
- (iii) Pulmonary complications may also require oxygen and the tapping of effusions.
- (iv) Restlessness and cerebral edema may develop and the treatment has been well summarized by Argitt and Cope (1956).
- (v) Anxiety, an understandable feature, may require sedation.

These symptoms appear with such rapidity, and are cleared by immediate descent in the majority, that categorization is a matter of judgment on the part of the observer who must be at attendance throughout the run. Comparison with other similar events covered not by Cohn and Gannon (1957) and Barclough (1953) is difficult owing to different interpretations of the symptoms but the general incidence is the same, the distribution and time of onset of the different groups can be seen in fig. 1. The distribution has remained remarkably constant over the seven years of testing.

#### DISCUSSION

From a study of the selection test on well over a thousand air crew it is surprising how difficult it is to find definite predisposing constitutional factors determining susceptibility. Age is probably the most definite but even here, with the relatively few members tested over 35 years old, there is no rapid rise of susceptibility with age. In fig. 2 the normal air crew age distribution for the first two categories is shown against those who have suffered severe symptoms in the test, while in fig. 3 the increasing percentage of category C's



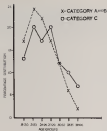


FIG. 2.—Showing the incidence of the three categories against the age group of infection.

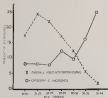


FIG. 3.—Showing the steadily increasing incidence of Category C among the decreasing population of the least in the older age group levels.

of the first is used in the older age groups it will. In the younger age groups the tendency is less. While after 37 there is an increasing incidence shown by the two least diverging. Owing to the small numbers in these latter age groups applying the  $\chi^2$  test reveals that such a tendency might appear by chance more often than it in 20 trials, a conclusion already reached by Samuel (1936) reviewing a larger number of tests in the Royal Air Force.

Another well-known association is between body weight and susceptibility, the overweight state being stronger and hence have more tendency to get rid of rate the usual and provision of divide. Such an argument is too flimsy, as shown in Table 1, where 68 air crew in each category were picked out from

TABLE 1.—TO SHOW THE RELATIVE DISTRIBUTION OF AIR CREW WHOSE WEIGHT SHOWS DEVIATION OF 10 PERCENT IN THE AGE AND CATEGORIES GROUPS

Age group	Fat, pounds		
	A	B	C
17-25	18%	24%	17%
25-35	15%	30%	12%
35-45	44%	38%	41%
45-55	9%	23%	25%
55-65	80%	37%	20%
Average totals	28%	33%	26%

TABLE II.—TO SHOW THE INCIDENCE OF OVERWEIGHT AND SLENDER, AMONG THE THREE CATEGORIES OF AIRCREW

Overall incidence	Fat incidence					
	1	2	3	4		
Category B	32%	37%	30%	19%	Lightly built	17.9%
					Additional fat	12.1%
Category C	9%	27%	23%	41%	Chosen	41%
					Reserve	30.1%
					Reserve extra weight	21%
					Additional fat	8.1%
					Plus disintegration collapse	2.4%
					Reserve extra weight	2.1%

the same year periods and assigned according to their weight. The expected weight for age and height has been calculated from tables prepared by Marston (1948) for air crew. As can be seen no matter which age group is taken there is approximately the same number overweight in each category, the totals being thus cut. Overweight, in itself, may not make excessive fat and an increase in body fat supplemented by an increased rate of nitrogen excretion, may render the fat subject no more prone to develop decompression sickness than less than collagenic. Another aspect is that fat stored in vital organs such as the liver and bone marrow may be potentially more dangerous than fat stored under the skin. Age, overweight and nitrogen elimination rates taken singly do not show striking correlations with susceptibility, but together may show an increased correlation. Gray (1933) has shown that

TABLE III—To Show the SUBJECT AIRBORNE WEIGHT RATIO between Category A and C. The Difference (Difference Between Feb. March Can Also be Seen)

Subject's (Body Weight) MP	Category A	Category C
>115	75%	75%
<115	45%	75%
Mean	120	122
Standard deviation	$\pm 6.5$	$\pm 4.5$
Difference between the means	4	
Standard error of the difference	2.74	

subject's air/body weight ratio may show a more significant correlation than weight alone. This is borne out by our data as well. In Table III the percentage of air men falling above or below a ratio of 0.0415 has been shown from a consideration of the standard deviation of over 200 in category A, a striking difference can be seen which would be even greater if age were also taken into account. That this difference in the mean values is significant is demonstrated by the low value of the standard error of the difference. However, it is still a continuous variation and cannot be used to predict which category a particular subject will fall into.

Thus, in selecting an crew particularly suitable for high altitude, the age/body surface/weight ratio and uncompensated rate to altitude (in a decompression chamber should all be taken into account). Owing to the number of unknown variables affecting an individual's susceptibility to decompression sickness, a series of objections can be raised to the latter consideration which some would override in favor of those with more experience and acclimatization. If the test were a more random distribution for a particular air-crew population with experience over a large enough series should pick out an equal number of susceptibles. Thus this is not as a seen in Table II where a steadily decreasing incidence for both category B and C is seen over the week. Again, if it were a random procedure, no test results after four years should bear no relationship to previous susceptibility. Over 70 have been retained and, with a normal experience rate, at least 8 category Cs should have appeared. Regarding the increased incidence with age, only one has done so. In this case a pilot, age 35, with about five years' experience flying unpressurized above 15,000 ft. and a category A four years previously, developed bends at 10 minutes but opted to stay in the chamber, the break rising for a time. At 45 minutes he felt unwell and dizzy and was removed to ground level without losing consciousness. How much the mild but prolonged bends pain contributed to his response is difficult to estimate. Another pilot, aged 34, with no experience of flying above 10,000 ft. experienced, and a history of several spinal attacks following injuries and operations, was placed category A in 1953. Seven months later he became unconscious while flying, following a severe attack of bends at 17,000 ft. He recovered consciousness and control of the aircraft at 15,000 feet. He was re-tested and on the second run had severe chest bends after 77 minutes at altitude. Three minutes later he

collapsed in the chamber but quickly regained consciousness at 28,000 ft. with no sequelae at ground level. This illustrates the occasional subject who slips through the net, tends to fight against bends pains, precipitating a syncopeal attack in which he loses consciousness, and also that the whole sequence can be simulated in the decompression chamber. As a high proportion regard their category following re-testing and in flight, it serves a fair conclusion that those categorized C will do the same. Until the factors affecting susceptibility are fully known a heavy responsibility rests on anyone allowing such a subject to fly high however remote the chance of recurrence.

#### Summary

The nature of aviator's decompression sickness is discussed with reference to those symptoms developed during the regular High Altitude Selection Test. The importance of constant observation during the test, and afterwards, in any subject who has suffered severe symptoms is stressed. Factors affecting susceptibility are shown to be multiple and the general impression is confirmed that those who are under 37 years of age, not overweight, with a normal body fat distribution, are less susceptible. The High Altitude Selection Test is shown to be of value, not only in the pre-selection, but also in the reclassification of air crew into the type of decompression sickness without which mild symptoms might be mistaken with serious results. It cannot be denied that the statistical evidence is slender, but even all questions of preventive medicine, the wisdom of measures taken are only revealed over a long period of time.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to acknowledge my debt to the staff of the Royal Naval Air Medical School for their accurate demonstration, help and encouragement and to Squadron Leader G. Fryer, Royal Air Force Institute of Aviation Medicine, Farnborough, for his criticism and suggestions.

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## THE CHRISTMAS ISLAND STORY

BY

Arling Rogers, Commander, P. M. G. FUCHS, R.N.

I was appointed to H.M.S. *Warrior* in mid August, 1956, and a few weeks (I think) the events which followed my appointment should be recorded. As things, I have nothing dramatic to report from the medical angle, but incidentally I have forgotten the secret of the hydrogen bomb, but simply because I feel that a brief account of some of the things we saw, and some of the things we felt and did during the conduct of this historic event may be of interest to the reader. I must make it clear that this operation "Operation Grapple" was an vast and complex affair that no one person saw the same picture. The "Grapple" crew consisting as it does of a Commandant (a land, air and water bird), and the members of Combined Operations (provided as a group) the four arms of which equally the Army, Navy, Air Force and A.W.R.E. (the Atomic Weapons Research Establishment, which is situated at Aldermaston) makes that point. My account must by the very nature of things contain a great bias, and I make no apologies for this, but it does lay right at the heart that the other three "arms" each played just as important a part as the Royal Navy.

Early in June 1956 Sir Anthony Eden announced in Parliament that Great Britain intended to hold a trial of hydrogen weapons from a base situated at Christmas Island in the Spring of 1957. The Task Force, Commanded was to be Air Vice-Marshal W. E. Outson, C.B.E., D.S.O., D.F.C. from the naval angle a "Grapple" Squadron was to be formed under the command of Commodore, P. W. Gorton, D.S.O., and two bars, D.S.E., D.S.C., R.N., who was also to be the Deputy Task Force Commander. During the Summer and Autumn of 1956 the planning went ahead and a visit was made on the construction work at Christmas Island. The vessel chosen to be Flagship to the "Grapple" Squadron was H.M.S. *Warrior* whose Commanding Officer was Captain R. E. N. Hicks, D.S.O., R.N.

My appointment to *Warrior* in mid August was couched because of the Staff cruise, but I eventually joined her towards the end of September. The medical officer, Surgeon Lieutenant R. W. Davidson, R.N., had joined a few weeks previously.

I do not propose to delve too deeply into the events which preceded our departure from the United Kingdom. It was a particularly busy period. As *Warrior* was to be in the forward area I had to consider the procedures and arrangements to be carried out in the highly unlikely event of an attack.

being initiated. In the common room were paid to the R.N. Medical School and the A.W.R.E. at Aldermaston where I discussed these matters with Doctor Lynch, the Principal Medical Officer and other officers of the establishment. From all I received the warmest co-operation and most helpful advice. I also visited Harwell where I first made the acquaintance of Air Commodore Wilson, the personal adviser to the Task Force Commander on matters relating to radiation, and his assistant, Squadron Leader Sawrock.

As a result of these discussions proposals were drafted and finally approved to standadise throughout the squadron both the investigations and treatment of any casualties. As so little is known about radiation injuries, stress was laid on the importance of keeping a detailed record of such patients and about investigations were laid. It was clear however, that the circumstances could be such that only a limited number of these procedures could be carried out. In such an event, a clearly marked master and slave collection (for forwarding to A.W.R.E.) were selected as the most valuable and simple of the available investigations. Facilities for coloured clinical photography were also made available aboard *Chryseis*.

A routine for the treatment of radiation injuries, thermal burns and mechanical trauma was laid down, it being proposed to deal with all major trauma in the operating theatre at Harwell. Additional apparatus and drugs were obtained but it seemed pointless to order more material than the available staff would be able to use. It was not therefore the hypothetical number of casualties that dictated the issue, but the known number of staff. As soon as the plan was laid training in all these matters was initiated.

Meanwhile the work in *Chryseis* peaked about H.M.S. *Albatross* had first been associated with Operation "Grapple" in February 1956 when she came out of reserve in Malta and sailed for the United Kingdom to undergo an extensive refit at Chatham including the installation of the tank deck of a fully new capacity refrigerator for the storage of fresh provisions at "Chryseis". She left the United Kingdom on the 10th June 1956 and crossing the Atlantic via the Azores and Lajes, passed through the Panama Canal reaching Christmas Island on 22nd August. There cargo brought from the United Kingdom was transferred ashore and other equipment transferred to Maiden Island, which was first reached on 2nd October. By the time *Chryseis* sailed on 2nd February most of the preliminary work on the island had been completed.

#### CARRYING STORES

On our journey out we carried over 100 Army and R.A.F. personnel as passengers. We had had many signals of good wishes on leaving Portsmouth amongst which was a particularly thoughtful one from Commander Portsmouth: "Make sure you reach Christmas Island by Lajes and not Easter Island in Chryseis." It was not long however before we had other things to think about for we ran into a storm of almost hurricane proportions which lasted

for two, three and nights. At the end of it, most of us were severely exhausted, and the ship itself severely damaged. Part of the beams had been pushed in by the waves to an extent one could hardly credit, and most of the boats had either been badly smashed or swept away. It was therefore with much pleasure that we arrived at Jomson on the 15th February for a two-day break.

While at Jomson, I took the opportunity of calling on Professor J. S. H. Golding, now in charge of the Orthopaedic Department of the recently formed University College of the West Indies. During recent years, Professor Golding has distinguished himself in two fields. He has made a comprehensive study of the bone changes which occur in sickle cell anaemia, and presented his findings as an Huxleyian Lecture delivered in the Royal College of Surgeons in 1956. He also performed a great service to the island during and following the various outbreaks of anterior poliomyelitis which struck the West Indies during 1955. It will be recalled that Mr. Jackson Burrows, Orthopaedic Consultant to the Royal Navy Base, was in charge of the measures to be taken at that time. Any Naval medical officers who happen to be this way should certainly read this interesting story.

HMS *Narvik* had departed the United Kingdom a few days before us. She also had struck the storm and had sustained such damage that she was delayed for several days in Jomson for repairs.

Leaving Kingston on the seventeenth, *Farrier* passed through Panama on the nineteenth. It was a fascinating experience. We were honoured by the presence of Her Majesty's Ambassador to Panama who took passage through the canal with us. At times, as we entered the Canal Locks, there were literally only two or three miles clearance on either side. Yet such was the dexterity and competence of the pilots that the passage through the canal was made in about ten hours. After a short stop at Balboa to refuel, we sailed that evening for Christmas Island.

Next day we ran into quantities of turtles, all apparently making towards the coast. It was an opportunity too good to miss. Our ship's light complement of three Avengers and four Whistlers helicopters. At the time the Avengers were flying and the platoon leader was airborne. Accordingly the *Spruells* was towed and after one or two attempts a turtle of about two hundred pounds was scooped out of the drink. Thus it came about that my first operation abroad (performed with a Spence's aspirator) (note) was a D.O.T. or rather a D.O.D. being performed on one of the *spruells*. The following morning turtle soup was served on the Whistlers.

The next day we passed Cook Island. Owned by Cook Bay, Cooks is about 10 miles by 4½ miles in extent, and extremely mountainous. During the seventeenth century it was the resort of buccanniers, and is reputedly the hiding place of fabulous treasure. During the last century whaling vessels frequently visited there, but now it is unvisited save for the Cook Bay Government agent. This was our last night of land prior to our arrival at "Christmas."





*USS Intrepid (CV-11) at sea.*

FIG. 1.—The remote Spratly Nat. (On 25 Nov. 1966).

A few days out from "Christmas" the first case of appendicitis occurred and allowed us finally to open the proper operating theatre.

#### CHRISTMAS ISLAND

We arrived at Christmas Island on the morning of the 4th February, and anchored off Cook Island, which lies in the mouth of the lagoon. Christmas Island is one of a line of small low-lying islands (the Line Islands) which run S.E. from the Hawaiian Group to the northern part of French Guiana. Passing from north to south these islands are Kingman (17° E.), Palmyra (21° E.), Washington (26°), Fanning (30°), Christmas (36°), Jarvis (10° E.), Matter (38°), Starbuck (38°), Caroline (38°), Vostok (38°), and Flint (38°).

These coral reefs, for the most part uncultivated and semi-barren, were unrecorded until 1888, being occupied only by guano pickers or small planting companies which established coconut plantations in some of the more accessible places. After 1945 when it was seen that what had hitherto appeared useless islands might provide valuable airbases, there was a scramble by British and American interests for formal possession of the various reefs comprising the group.

A coral atoll is a more or less circular reef descending steeply into the sea on one side and sloping away into the lagoon on the other. The reef encloses a water lagoon, usually shallow, but some have deep parts, where large ships can anchor. They are famous for their beautiful colours, but they are without *lanae* (lagoon) and which will grow fruit and vegetables usually found in the tropics and without running water. An atoll is probably a mountain, the top of which has been flattened to below the surface by powerful ocean waves, thus providing a suitable site for coral polyps and also to develop and build the coral island. Emerging permanently from the ocean surface the coral dies. Sand shells and debris are piled up by the waves forming a strip of dry land, which consequently is almost always higher on the windward side.

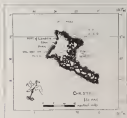


FIG. 1. Christmas Island (Kiritimati) in the Line Islands.

Christmas Island, located in the equatorial Pacific about 1,200 miles south of Hawaii at 1° N latitude 157° W longitude. Roughly resembling a large kidney shape in outline, it forms the largest atoll in the Pacific, with a perimeter of 108 miles. It is about 21 miles in length on a north-west to south-west direction, and about 17 miles in width. Enclosed within the water coast is an area estimated at 382 square miles, of which approximately 150 are land and 187 are lagoon, about 25 square miles are occupied by numerous salt

etc.). Vermetid limbs and shells, the lakes and lagoons provide an unforgettable picture. The yellow-green, etc. etc. seem to be biological signs from the various shells of fish, and gulls. There are little flocks of red-birds and terns and water fowl due to various forms of signs. These signs are arranged in an amazing manner as a result of the grotesque shapes of the lakes and the whole combines to form a monstrous picture which would do credit even to Picasso. The island is generally low averaging about ten feet or less in elevation except along the southern shore off the Bay of Wrecka where there are scattered sand dunes which may reach 40 feet in height. The rainfall varies from 15 to 500 inches a year. The air temperature varies from a maximum of 68° F. to a minimum of 106° F. but the Easterly Trade Winds exert a cooling influence so that despite the high humidity, the heat is not oppressive.

On the afternoon of 24th December, 1973, Captain Cook brought the *Resounder* and the *Discovery* to anchor off the west shore of the island. This was Cook's third voyage of discovery and he was journeying north in search of the north-west passage. The following account of his discovery was recorded by Cook.

1777 Alexander Wedderburne, M.D. On the 24th about half an hour after daylight, land was discovered bearing South-East by East half East. Upon a second observation it was found to be one of those low islands so common in the ocean at 45°. A narrow bank of land enclosing the sea within.

Charles Cook. At daylight the next morning, I went over board and from each ship we searched round incessantly for a landing place and at the same time two others so late as a galleon near the shore.

Charles Cook. On the 25th I landed in company with Mr. Banks on the island (now known as Cook Island) which lies between the two islands into the distance. In proportion to the size of the island, the water along edges of the sea which was one great advantage to my anchoring here.

Charles Cook. On the morning of the 26th the day when the ships, was to depart Mr. King, Mr. Baily and myself went ashore on the small island where we anchored to record the observations.

Wedderburne, M.D. Having come about noon and found no better anchorage of vegetation I directed them to be placed on the little island where we had observed the villages and some other small ones seen in another place. I also left, on the little island a house containing the necessaries.

*Seigneur Frome, Dec. 31 December 1777*

*Seigneur Frome, Dec. Cook P.*

*Discovery, Dec. Cook P.*

As we left our Chinese boat, I called this discovery Chinese Island.

The monks stayed at various periods days to permit the men to refresh themselves. Cook reports that there were no traces of human beings living here three hundred years and that the number of coconut trees did not exceed thirty. However, it has been said, although we saw none, that numerous archeological sites suggest that the island had been visited previously—possibly by Polynesian sailors and sailors in search of more fertile lands. Cook had the following to say about the animal life.

Under the two eyes above mentioned are ordinary numbers of a pair of species of tern or egg bird. There are black above and white below, with a white arch in the forehead apparently above the eye, and are rather larger than the common gull. Most of them have fairly pointed thin young, which lay under old ones upon the bare ground. The nest had eggs of which they lay only one larger than that of a sparrow hawk and spotted with black. There are also a good many common terns in a nest that are almost like a common crane (like the blue faced booby), and a very abundant red-tailed one with a white belly (the brown booby).

To this list can be added many-of-war birds, tropes, hawks, eagles, sand piper, a small land bird like a hedge sparrow (the *kokolobala*, as named by the natives), land crabs, small lizards and rats.

Apes from shipwrecked crews (the natives never form a deep bay uply called the Bay of Whales, the shore of which is still strewn with wreckage), the island appears to have remained unoccupied for more than forty years after Cook's landing. Later Dutch and American whalers began occasionally to touch at the island in order to rest their crews and load their vessels with sea bird-eggs.

The whaling ship *Xuzan* stopped at Christmas Island in May 1835. Bennett (1840) gives an interesting account of the visit and states that "Here and there among the low thick scrub are vast numbers of aquatic birds, whose situation is striking." He recorded that he was able to make, in any round more than two-thirds of its nest. He also reported that the island was uninhabited and that the palm, cotton and coconuts planted by Cook and the boats and equipment left to commemorate his discovery had all disappeared. The island must have been visited fairly recently, for he found that "more than fifty" of the coconut palms had been "badly pruned by fire and axe—the malicious work of some visitors who left their marks upon the trunks of the surviving trees."

In 1838 Captain Sir W. Worsman of H.M.S. *Conifer* formally took possession of the island on behalf of His Majesty, Queen Victoria.

In 1893 a British lease was granted to Lever & Pacific Plantations Limited who plan of some 70,000 coconuts upon before deciding to abandon the island. In 1903 a London firm *General Clayton Plantations Limited* acquired the lease from Lever Bros. The Managing Director Mr. John Emanuel Rouper was responsible for many of the extensive coconut groves that now occupy the northwestern, northern, south-western and southern parts of the island. The Holy Father must certainly have had his tongue in his cheek when he christened points on opposite sides of the lagoon, *London* and *Paris* for it is he who is reputed to have first mapped the island.

During the last war an American Task Force occupied Christmas Island from November 1942 to March 1946. At one time there were as many as 10,000 men on the island. They constructed the airfield and various buildings, many of which remained at the time of the arrival of our survey party. They also developed the Channel to the north of Cook Island.

The Colonial Office bought out Rouper's option when he returned to

claim the island after the last war for £20,000. He was not popular, a cold thrower to his lot with the Vichy Government.

The island forms part of the largest colony in the world (about two million square miles) the Gilbert and Ellice Islands. But most of the colony is sea and Christmas Island forms two thirds of the land area. About 150 Gilbertese have been brought in to provide a labour force for the plantation. The natives occupy a village near the Port of London and have too with the tendency of the distant officer Mr. Percival Roberts. The island is administered as far as that goes from Tanganyika 1,800 miles away.

It was towards the end of 1951 that the first survey party arrived by air at the island with the object of determining whether or not it was suitable to be used as a base for the magazine tests. They found the airfield was well in a fairly reasonable condition, and a few of the buildings in its vicinity well intact. The Port of London too, seemed suitable as a site for off-loading. As a result of their favourable report the island was finally selected.

In June 1952 the first advanced parties arrived and from that time a rapid build-up took place. A fantastic task lay ahead but the work progressed with only minor hitches. Both the Army, Navy and Air Force were in at the start. It is clear that I cannot go too deeply into what was involved excepting to say that the exchange for the Port of London had to be prepared and the Port itself set up. Miles of roads were made. A job in itself was the Main Camp situated twelve miles from the Port, and beyond this was the airfield which also required a considerable amount of labour. Up to November 1955 over 20,000 tons of cargo including some 600 vehicles and various machines, bulldozers, graders, concrete-mixers, and so on, were transported to the site. The task of off-loading the gear and stores necessary for such an operation, was a gigantic one. By the time Warbur arrived the Port Camp, the Main Camp and the Airfield were virtually fully operational and ready for the tasks that lay ahead.

The Senior Medical Officer for the island, Squadron Leader Bradley, came aboard shortly after our arrival. One of the first to arrive at the island, he had watched the early evolution of the project, and so, when we landed later, could give us almost fairly accurate accounts of everything we saw.

The Port Camp was mostly roamed with a small proportion of wooden buildings. It was occupied by R.N. and R.M. personnel together with a sprinkling of the Army. Their responsibilities were mainly off-loading and bunk-loading, and the maintenance of the small craft used for this purpose. There was a small M.I. Room staffed by a R.A.F. medical assistant.

The native village near by consisted in the main of泥屋 (thatched buildings). The Gilbertese are Micronesians darker and less attractive than the Polynesians. Educationally they are far less advanced, very few can understand English and their crafts are at a far inferior to the Polynesians. Nevertheless, they are a happy people, perpetually smiling and having a genuine delight in showing off their babies. There are around seven naked and are completely healthy. The men are usually heavily dressed in

European clothes but the women wear ill fitting, poor quality dresses that make them look much squalier than they already are. Occasionally one sees a young girl wearing a grass skirt over her European clothes but these dresses are compact unfavourably with similar articles made by Polynesian. The medical care of the village was, until shortly before our arrival, in the hands of a Fijian assistant medical practitioner, Sisonua Puni. Following his departure to another island, Squadron Leader Bradley had taken over. During the ensuing weeks, Naval medical officers looked after the M.I. Rooms at the Port Camp and attended the Dispensary in the native village. There was an official Post Office in the village, an agency of the Gilbert and Ellice Colony which sold Gilbert and Ellice Island stamps, and came made by the natives. Most of the natives, who had previously been employed on the plantation were now employed in a labouring capacity for the "Grapple" Operation.

The road from the village to the Main Camp runs through virtually continuous coconut plantations, the journey taking about twenty five minutes on a Land Rover. At the Main Camp were situated, among other things, two messes for senior and junior officers (the sergeants shared these messes), three bunks, and close by the hospital.

The hospital (which was really a large sick quarters) was partly of wooden construction and partly walled. About one hundred patients could be accommodated although there were rarely more than a dozen or so. There was an operating theatre, X-ray room, laboratory and dental surgery. Squadron Leader Bradley's assistant was Flight Lieutenant Cowley, other medical personnel included two operating room technicians and radiographer, two laboratory technicians, one surgical medical administrator and seven nursing attendants. In addition to his responsibilities at the hospital, the Senior Medical Officer was responsible for the M.I. Rooms at the airfield, the Port Camp, Makin and Prefigon, although soon after our arrival we took over responsibility for the Port Camp and Makin.

On 24 March we heard with regret that Commodore Gertsen, who had already played so valuable a part in the operations, was unable to join us owing to sickness, but were delighted to learn that our Captain had been appointed Commodore of the "Grapple" Squadron as he stood.

Our arrival visit to Christmas Island lasted six days, and during that time much hard work was done in order to complete the off loading of the large quantity of stores and equipment which we had brought out with us from the United Kingdom. On the 30th March we sailed with about 300 Army, R.A.F. and R.M. personnel aboard, the *Hampshire*. The object was to give a break to those men, many of whom had been on Christmas Island for up to nine months.

#### *HONGKONG*

We arrived at Hong Kong (China) Island, on the morning of the 11th March and docked at the Army pier, being the first aircraft carrier and one of the largest ships ever to do so.

One cannot help but recall the arrival of Captain Cook on the 26th January, 1779, at these islands, which he named the Sandwich Islands. His discovery had sailed up from Christmas Island and it is now accepted that he was the first European to set eyes upon this island group. His landfall was made, at the island of Aneke (Kauai).

The next morning we sailed at low tide and were met with several natives lined with people, some of them with weapons and dressed in loincloths. In the course of my several voyages, I have never before met with the natives of any place so unwarlike as these people were on visiting, it being then just about thirty years distant to observe the wildness of their looks and gestures fully, expressing their ignorance about everything they saw, and strongly inclining to us, that until now they had never been visited by Europeans.



*Arrival of the ship at the island of Aneke (Kauai).*

FIG. 1. (March 1, 1911) at the island of Aneke (Kauai) (March 1, 1911).

Our visit was no less exciting, *perhaps* less rather different. We were met by a fifty-piece American Army band and by a group of Halo-Halo girls in traditional costume who sang and danced for us on the pier, and then came aboard and did a square performance on the flight deck, placing a line (instead of Bowser) around the neck of both the Commodore and the Commander.

During the forenoon, the Navy band on a trip around Pearl Harbour, and

we saw the place where the eight American battleships had foundered during the surprise Japanese attack in 1941. (However, public contact with actual war on any one day—the day of infamy—7th December, 1941. But the events of that day altered the course of human history. All but two of the battles have been raised, some in fact were raised so rapidly that they saw further service during the war. One of the remaining hulks, the Alaska is still in commission, but in war guise put it. "She is still manned by her Captain and eleven hundred men. Above the surface little remains except a few pieces of rusted and rotted steel. Near where the Stern and Engines is raised each day, and on which a small memorial has been erected. Following this tour we were entertained by the Navy to a most delightful lunch, the menu each of which was dolphins.

That evening Harver gave a cocktail party to four hundred guests. We thought it a success, and I believe our guests did too. "Remembrance of the great moments of military life" wrote the *Homestead Advertiser*—was the delightful reception held Wednesday aboard the aircraft carrier H.M.S. Harver. Guests were transported on the airplane lift to the after flight deck where the reception was held. The area was decorated with coloured lanterns and flags. An oil-fired rubber life raft, loaded with a shower head run by an electric motor made a gaily splashing fountain. At one end two hooded stands served the American delicacy to guests. The deck of the ship was laid with rugs and decorated with potted palms, banana leaves and orchids—

The Tropical Army hospital is a fine modern hospital most lavishly equipped with the latest of everything. The VIP wing had to be seen to be believed. Although I have never been privileged to see inside a palace, I cannot bring myself to imagine that there can be much difference. It was completed during the Korean war and is the latest and amongst the best of all U.S. Army hospitals. I was given a most cordial reception and no effort was wasted to show me anything I wished to see. The hospital was the nearest hospital to Christmas Island although 1100 miles away, and was the hospital to which patients beyond the scope of the facilities at Christmas Island were discharged. In addition they handle outbreaks of certain pathological and other investigations for us and supplied urgent medical requirements.

The main industries of the islands are phosphates, sugar and the coconut trade. Many of us visited Libby's phosphate factory, near which we tied up, and were much intrigued by what we saw. The hospitality extended to us was of the most generous kind. Trips were organized round the island which is magnificent, and very beautiful, and to the famous bathing beach at Winkie sands. All our passengers thoroughly enjoyed their stay. There was no discomfort, no cerebral disease and no fighting. Whether all this was a consequence of how much good wine monks' say is Christmas Island had done them, or how little the devil will buy, I leave it to the reader to judge. At all events it was with a feeling of sadness that we sailed from Dingo Island on the afternoon of the 12th to return to Christmas Island and the tasks that lay ahead.



## MORE ABOUT CHRISTMAS ISLAND

We arrived back at Christmas Island on the 18th March (not at the time) remained there until the end of the month. I can say little about the work, it is well ahead almost this time, but I would like to say something about the facilities for the general well being and recreation of personnel engaged on the project.

Without doubt many lessons had been learnt as the result of the previous year at Monte Belia, Woomera and Milingimbi, but the tremendous magnitude of this operation (for the size of the operation would appear to the casual observer to grow proportionately to the size of the heavily equipped with the remoteness of the island) must have made the task of trying to make life reasonable for the personnel engaged a heavy one.

At Monte Belia 40 heavy communication airplanes was laid on and there were always three outgoing and three incoming each week and on an average a liner took about six days either way, but infrequently only four, which means of course that a man averaging well over a hundred miles per hour from the mainland was popped into the latter box. For morale purposes the Army Field Post Office issued outgoing envelopes with the words "BFPD Christmas Island". It is I understand almost unique to indicate on the envelope the use of the Field Post Office. Specially designed communication vessels were also used to celebrate the successful completion of the first voyage.

Food always comes next in a discussion of this sort. It was quite remarkable to have a fresh crop harvest of excellent quality with melons, spring onions, celery etc. on the menu almost every day. Fresh fruit in particular pineapples, oranges and apples were served at least three times a week frequently daily. Not only do the remarks apply to the wardroom at Warran, but also to what was consumed on the main deck, and in the other ships of the squadron. Above all, the food was of one such a high standard but it was rather an method of procurement which led to success than to quality. The happy state of affairs aboard was in the main brought about by the regular transport flights from Haverhill and the provision made in certain ships of the squadron to store large quantities of portable foodstuffs.

All this is, however, no new thing. In his journal at the conclusion of his second voyage of discovery, Cook remarks that only one man was lost by sickness and goes on to say "Extraordinary attention was paid by the *Adventure* to carrying such vessels as the port on board as from either experience or conjecture it was judged would tend to preserve the health of the voyage". He goes on to list "Milk, of which was made great use, sweetbreads, portable bread and rolls of butter and orange". He also took aboard "Sugar in the form of oil, and wheat for part of our oatmeal". Sugar was considered so to be an antiscorbutic and fit to preserve scurvy.

It was twenty-five men's journey to the Port of London by motor car and this undoubtedly deterred many from going ashore. Onboard entertainments included at least two cinema shows a week, football and similar games.

Deck level) was enormously popular and produced 100 Commemorative fish in major numbers. As regards swimming, three magnificent artificial rubber swimming pools were purchased specially for the expedition at a cost of £100 apiece. While they lasted they were a source of much pleasure, but they hardly survived a month, and thereafter only the rather inferior natural baths remained. Pre-swimming is an excellent method of both cooling down the ship and providing a very pleasant shower. We could have used it more often for this purpose. Whilst on the subject of cooling down this type of vessel I must stress the value of canvas misting laid on the flight deck and directed in sea water. This simple and inexpensive method frequently brought the temperature in my cabin down from just above, a hundred to the low twenties, in fact it can make the difference between unbearable and just bearable. But no-one misting up and pre-swimming are not the final answer to the unpleasant fact that this class of ship is utterly unsuited to the tropics in its present form as any man from the point of view of the officers' accommodation which situated as it is on two decks at) fraps the whole fury of the sun blaring down on the flight deck.

Fishing was a popular pastime, and although few really large fish were landed, vast quantities of very respectable ones were dragged aboard. The large marine type never wanted to take over the main attraction of boats. One famous day alone a dozen were seen browsing round the ship on the surface of the water. In desperation a firing gun was aimed at them and at least four were accounted for, but long before anything could be done about removing the corpse, they rolled over on their backs and disappeared into the depths. This led to a magnificent picture of fish rolled over, which was from about ten to twenty pounds. They gave the most excellent sport, after a thing over half an hour to land with a light net. They fed just on the surface. To shoot one with a pistol was enormously difficult to do. I am not direct but the fish was much before it could be retrieved. When a bullet appeared that you could not land just gave interest in the sport. Fugged. A veterinary legal question now arises. Why don't a thousand call, and a depth-limited fish boat?

As regards boxing one cannot mention a without thinking of our Fijian friends. Forty R.M.V.R. ratings of the Fijian Navy joined us shortly after our arrival for the duration of the expedition. Numerous were put in a mess of their own and the rest were scattered throughout the ship. They seemed to be as tame almost immediately and joined in everything that was going with the most relief. They are extremely pleasant people and the hardest of workers. Two of them were B.I.A.s, and proved a great asset in the Deck Log. Shortly after they arrived a boxing competition was held. All forty immediately wanted to fight, regardless of weight, none were over were challenging twelve stone men and so forth. It was with extreme difficulty that the sports officer was able to select a suitable pair, and these were put on at the end of the show. How these boys enjoyed fighting! The harder they were hit the more they laughed and they immediately won both the respect

and friendship of their neighbours. Badminton and volleyball were also played.

Admire, there were football pitches, hockey pitches, cricket pitches and even a running track. By and large the surface was poor and it being after heavy rains was bogged. Nevertheless many matches were played after which the players could repair to the canteens and drink beer (beer was stamped "Specially brewed for the Mopson Trust") and ambrosia with the Gipsy singers.

For zoologists the island provided a domain come true. The bird life was quite remarkable and the birds so tame that it was literally possible to pick one off her nest place her on the ground beside the egg, photograph her and then replace her. There were many instances when the birds quite nicely recognized. One of these was Cook Island, which not only provided excellent bird-watching but also very pleasant swimming, and another the Island of White Lake. The British District Officer, Mr. Frederick Roberts very kindly took some of us for an afternoon trip to this lake. While some fished or collected shells—much more popular pastime—and others, even the more bird-minded were able to secure some remarkable photographs of the bird life, which included the shore area (as my opinion the most beautiful of all the birds on the island being almost water in appearance, and fluttering around with a motion akin to that of a butterfly) the Chrysomelids, there were the shore lapped rapidly and several varieties of boaters.

Barbecues were a popular feature and were often combined with one-fishing expeditions. For the latter it certainly required low water which came and a full moon and others, a dark night. Armed with stout gloves and equipped with barbecues the myriads paraded that were between the reef and the shore, sweeping backwards and forwards in a line. When the very "trap" was sighted all that had to be done was to pick them out of the water. This, of course is far easier said than done and rarely was more than half a dozen brought back, although the old inhabitants spoke glibly of picking up as many as five a minute, or rather a fishing. One officer equipped himself with a flashlight, the object being to stick the torch upon the body of the frog so that he could neither move, live nor die. He had soon with a method used in Cayton but it did not last, much success at 'Christmas'. This brings me to the subject of "Jiggy", a small size, run of which few of us had heard. It is a most valuable weapon being a small tadpole to which a long wooden handle is attached. Each prong of the hook is barbed so that it may be plunged into a fish, the distance from a small boat or the gang-way. The fish strikes off with the metal part which had previously been attached to a line. Quite a number of fish were caught that way. Unfortunately it may also be used for catching crabs and catching fish in shallow water. While having heard the word used before, I was engaged to read Captain Cook's description of Botany Bay which was especially called Gipsy.

<sup>14</sup>Although one of the names given to the Oxford Dictionary is a "Jolly little one" (young word is).

my Harbour. They catch other sorts of fish, some of which we found cooking as the fish the first time we landed, some of these they strike with spears and others they catch with hook and line.

Some of the more interesting native life had much interest with a *Scorpa* sea "Sting" proved a popular poison, but the natives around the island are extremely dangerous and narrow escapes occurred on at least two occasions. Along the reef undergrowth swimming was also much indulged in. As can be imagined many very beautiful and exotic fish were to be observed. There were several places where quite good swimming was available and water polo nets were set up and several matches played. In many respects Christmas Island is similar to the Moonie Belong in particular the amusements are those if one can be bothered to go and look for them. In contrast, however, he said that we found, or even sought, the type of amusement that Captain Cook's officers indulged in on the afternoon of 23rd November, 1773 in New Zealand!

In the afternoon some of the officers went on shore to amuse themselves among the natives where they saw the head and shoulders of a youth, who is at least four feet tall, lying on the beach and the head stuck in a forked stick which was fixed to the head of one of the larger canoes.

There are a few other things worth mentioning. We have for instance our old school for a black unspattered with white "Crappie" magazine. There was also a "Crappie" news sheet known as the *Red-Finch News*. It was published about three times a week and provided a pretty comprehensive survey of world news. The R.N.C. had its special "Fella blues" programmes which were an outstanding success. A Christmas party was held for the Christmas Island children which was much enjoyed although I understood they scraped the sugar off the doughnuts because they thought it was wood and snatched the ring from the cake as to their hair because they thought it was Berylcream. A large missionary caused considerable being mistaken for a giant land crab with which the island abounds. Apart from these mosquitoes which I was told were dangerous to eat the island is singularly free of unhygienic and other pests. Of mosquitoes, only the *Aedes* and *Culex* are believed to occur and aerial spraying keeps them well in check. Lice (*P. capensis*) are abundant on the local population. There is a small rat, but no reptiles, apart from lizards, were seen. Scorpions, cockroaches and ants are all present but not in any quantity.

To assist in the welfare of the 5,000 or so personnel engaged in the operations we also had two W.F.S. ladies who rendered the most valuable service. Near Pans there was a building constructed a year or two previously by South Pacific Air Lines (S.P.A.L.) who had at one time intended to use the site as a refuelling point for their aircraft. This building was taken over and used as a rest centre during the early days of the operation.

#### ISLAND ISLAND

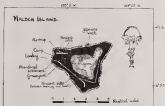
On the evening of 1st April we sailed for the target area (Mollie Island) which lies about 400 miles to the south of "Christmas". This was the first

of many passages we were to make to this desolate spot. We called it Jarvis Island, or better known as Barker Volcano or Break Island, first reported by Captain Bosc of the British ship *Albatross* in 1821. The American Guano Company claimed it in 1857, and from then until 1878, when it was abandoned, large quantities of guano were removed. Acquired by Britain in 1889, it was leased in 1896 to the Pacific Phosphate Company, but apparently never worked. When United States officials occupied and claimed the island in 1935 Britain offered no objection and it has since been used intermittently as an air and weather station.

Jarvis Island consists of little more than a barren ring of coral about two miles long by a mile wide and is now the site of a Census station. Four men spend a lonely life in a wooden hut and apart from themselves, the hut, wireless masts and thousands of birds, there was nothing on the island. The birds made it impossible for the B. A. P. to land there, and the surf made it difficult for boats. Birds, however, have a particular aversion to helicopters and it was by this means that we sought to bring in fresh supplies. The attempt was well success. On the completion of operations "Grapple," the hut was due to be occupied by American scientists doing work in connection with the Geophysical Year.

#### Malden Island

First day we arrived off Malden. It seems that this island was discovered on 26th July, 1835, by Captain the Rt. Hon. Lord Byron, of H. M. S. *Atalapha*.



Source: *Journal Voyages of H. M. Ships*

The vessel had borne to Honolulu the remains of the King and Queen of the Sandwich Islands (Maroono Ikingi), who had died of measles while on a visit to England. The vessel was homeward bound. Lieutenant Madsen, the survey officer, after whom the island is named, went ashore in a whale boat and explored as much of it as could be explored in the few hours at his disposal. He is said to have drawn up a remarkably accurate chart. By a coincidence a desert descendant of the lieutenant, bearing the same name, was a runner attached to the 7th Field Squadron. This squadron was engaged in the construction work on the island.

The journal of the captain of H. M. S. *Albatross* (Andrew Monson) who accompanied Lieutenant Madsen on this visit refers to "immense quantities of shells thrown up, as it were, as to let the sails when the men were pulling" and of clouds of sea birds—"the frigate pigeons were almost sufficient to darken the air with their numbers." He goes on to remark: "in one spot along the coast I observed what was evidently the work of human hands, though apparently of ancient date, it was a peritrochogram of coral stones with stone walls feet high. Lieutenant Madsen who had walked to another part of the island informed us that he had met with about forty such buildings, but in a more perfect state and extending along the shore in a regular line."

The late Professor MacMillan Brown of New Zealand, made a close study of these mysterious temples which he described as being truncated pyramids with a lower terrace like the lands of the great rulers of the Tongan group except that these latter have the blocks that form them carefully chiseled. He mentioned that they were also closely affiliated to the pyramids of the sea and moon on the coastal belt of Peru.

A temple described by Monson is described as being 30 feet long and 25 feet broad, having a framework of squared slabs of coral stuck sideways in the ground. The space inside had been filled up with coral debris. In the middle of the high central square had been erected what had evidently been an altar built of pieces of slabs, set up vertically eight feet apart with a flat square slab resting on them, in the case of the temple described. The latter had fallen. Professor MacMillan Brown added "the work could not have been accomplished without such surplus wealth and such masses of labor as could not be procured in the present state of the Pacific from all the archipelagoes within a radius of several thousand miles." Mr. Kinkaid, manager during the late of the century of the Transit Company that worked the island, told the Professor that, recently, and around the debris of the wall was impregnated with animal matter, as if animal or human bones had been burnt there, thus adding to the idea that they were sites of sacrifice. He also said that from most of the pyramid temples paved roads extended downwards in the direction of the sea, but that the terminus of these was in some cases as much as 40 yards from the reef and that this space was rendered almost impassable by the masses of coral debris that covered it. The conclusion drawn was that the level of the sea must have changed since the roads were made and that they must have been made centuries before.

Because the island, as it stands today, is quite incapable of supporting life, the Professor ventured the suggestion that the people who built the temples probably lived on little archipelagos within easy distance of each other, and that the solitary temple-crowned raised reef must have been their sacred site, their sanctity being born up to the shore up from the canoes that had brought them from the surrounding archipelagos. Presumably their ritual work, as Tuamotu in the Cook Islands is known to have done, and whether any of the northwestern islets was one of the great sanctuaries of the Pacific Ocean.

Others consider this hypothesis to be 'highly imaginative' and assert that the stone structures include not only temple platforms, but house sites and graves, probably produced by several generations of Polynesians, the total population being unlikely to exceed two hundred. It has been suggested that the island was formerly colonized from Manihiki in the northern Cook group.

A few of the streets and tracks still exist today, although many must have been destroyed by the guano workers. Some excavation was done but only red clay was found. A testimony to their casual construction is that most of those remaining withstood the fury of the blast of the negative weapons exploded high overhead.

An American Captain George E. Netheral is said to have landed in 1842. The island is rich in deposits of phosphate which is derived from guano, the excrement of sea birds. In 1858 Midden was included in an unofficial list of American guano islands—however, the deposits do not appear to have been worked until in March, 1864, Mr Benjamin S. Nicholson, a British subject of Melbourne, took possession of Midden, and on the 15th day of that year "formally proclaimed the Majesty's right of sovereignty therein." During the next two years he is said to have spent upwards of £12,000 in the construction of works etc. on the island and was granted a licence to remove the guano. In 1867 he transferred his licence to Messrs Glen, Tanner and Company of Melbourne.

At first 8 Europeans and 40 Cook Islanders—the latter paid £2 a month—worked the deposits, but, later, the number of natives was increased to 150. Work was obtained by the collection of such as large receptacles and by means of a shuffling plate. During the next thirty years Midden proved the richest and one of the most prosperous of the guano islands, exporting between 12,000 and 14,000 tons annually. An expedition "Grapple" 1,000 tons of stores and equipment was landed in 1856-1857, and this was considered a major undertaking—one may marvel therefore at the brave spirit of these nineteenth century sailors. The Company's manager until 1891 was one Abraham McCulloch who came out as a young man and who died and was buried on the island.

During the early days guano was sold at 4s-15 per ton in the North German market, but later because of competition and the introduction of other fertilizers only the smaller Australian and New Zealand markets remained open. Conditions on the island, too, began to deteriorate because of failure

to improvements in time. In 1913, one native killed another, and this subsequently tried and convicted of manslaughter. World War I caused a further slump in the company's affairs, and although there was some improvement during the early 1920's, the company was eventually compelled to close down in August 1927.

Between 1917 and 1926 Malden was occasionally visited by H. M. Ships—an unexploded shell found in October 1936 appears to have been used for target practice at some time or another.

Morse first visited Malden on 3rd October, 1936. Baker was found at the small community who had lived there. Several of the buildings were constructed of coral stone, others of wood, and a few partly of brick. Some were still in a reasonable state of preservation. The layout and construction was similar to that of old South coast. There was a boat-house housing two lofty long boats with room for a third, but the boats were becoming rotten with age. The old buildings were interesting to explore, and there were still old maps and letters lying around. The dispensary shelves were laden with old bottles, many containing their original drugs. Old tins for stores and magazines had been left behind, and the papers were interesting to compare with those of today. It appears that the phosphate was taken from the quarries along a narrow gauge railway to the beach adjoining the boat-house. Here was a small pier. In fine weather plants were laid on the pier and the railway had down so that the phosphate could easily be transported to the boats and thence to the sailing vessels that used to arrive once a month from Australia. These vessels could carry a thousand tons of phosphate. They often called as well as New and Atlanta at the Cook Islands to pick up native labour. Remnants of the narrow gauge railway were still present together with some of the old tip-up trucks, and the rusted remains of an old engine. There were also a few heaps of phosphate that had been quarried, but never collected. Where necessary, stacks of coral pillars had been made to support the railway and these were still in an almost perfect state of preservation.

Interesting manuscripts in the deputy manager were found which were issued during World War I. It appears that during this period there were only about three Europeans and thirty Cook Islanders living at Malden and the sailing vessels were no longer under charter but called in sporadically, about once an month. He was instructed in the event of a second vessel arriving at Malden while the base was occupied that he was on no account to order the Master to wait, but was to advise him to lay to the westward and watch the Eastern Beacon, this being to prevent a claim for demurrage being made against the company. Moreover, in the event of a being necessary for instructions to be passed to the Master of a vessel it should only be done in private, or if any other were present he should be an Officer of the company.

Some debris from the buildings lay a rather pathetic condition. Several of the stores appeared to be of marble and were still in an almost perfect state of preservation. There was found the grave of Abraham McCullough and



that that of the shuffling of the company. Here too, was a teaching book stone bearing the words

*Sacred  
to  
The Memory of  
Dear Little  
Mildred  
Daughter of  
Abraham and Mary  
J. McCullough  
Who Was Taken  
From Them  
By  
The Wild Waves  
On the 5th January  
1876  
April 1, 1908 and twelve days  
"Not Lost but Gone Before"*

It is rather odd to think that Little Mildred was born the same year as Sir Winston Churchill, and but for the wild waves might still be alive today. Apart from the half-dug-in or so-European graves, there were several graves close by with Polynesian inscriptions, presumably those of the Cook Islanders. At one place on either side of the runway there were sections of coral pebbles with Polynesian inscriptions which were also taken to be graves although probably not Christian ones.

During January, 1956, a Japanese fishing vessel was wrecked on the reef. Its crew apparently trapped from the island on the third of the long boats, badly damaged and were picked up by another fishing vessel. Dozens of glass balls used as ammunition with the nets were washed up, and provided much proof evidence of our visit to Mildred. They were of a size larger than I have seen before being fully twelve inches in diameter.

Mildred lies 200 miles south of the equator, at Longitude 133° W. It is a triangular, flat, coral island, on a reef measuring about five miles by four miles, and entirely enclosing a large salt lagoon, into which the sea enters through subterranean fissures in the coral rock, raising the level of the lagoon to rise and fall with the tide. It is barren apart from four or five trees and low scrub. About thirty ex-domesticated pigs roamed the island until the time of Maseko's first visit. It was suggested that these should be destroyed prior to the setting up of scientific equipment for fear damage might occur. A hunt was arranged, and almost all were slaughtered. It was suggested that these pigs should be used as a source of fresh pork aboard *Albatross*, but on examination of their carcasses it was clear that their diet had been of such a low standard that they had very little flesh on them. An autopsy was performed on one by Surgeon Lieutenant Taylor, who, although finding no

evidence of macropsops disease, very windy did not pass them fit for human consumption. A large proper cat was reported, probably a survivor from the Japanese wreck. He (or she) presumably lived on the main which abounded on the island, common crocodiles, with very long arms. Apart from these animals there were numerous large forest birds, small birds and a rather limited bird population.

Boating around the island was dangerous for there was nearly always considerable reef breaking over the reef but some months later our arrival an inland pool was discovered. This unusual place was formed from a cavernous in the coral, and it was possible to swim underneath the coral for some way. Although a considerable distance from the shore, the pool was nevertheless tidal and as it extended in places to a depth of twenty feet and was cool, by virtue of the shade provided by the overhang it formed a most welcome source of recreation. A football field was also provided near the camp. The camp, inhabited by marines, Army and R.A.F. personnel was neatly sited. It was provided with a M.I. Room staffed by one R.A.F. medical attendant. In the early days prior to the construction of the airstrip, Lieutenant Ross-Russell, R.A.M.C., was in charge, but he was withdrawn when the airfield became operational. At a later stage in the operation the medical officer of Varad, used to visit the M.I. Room two or three times a week.

From that time until the "big bang," however went in and fro between Hildesheim and Christmas and engaged in a most exhaustive series of skirmishes.

(To be continued)

## TRISTAN DA CUNHA

17

Surgeon Commander (D) S. R. WELLES, R.N.

As a result of representation by the Colonial Office, the author is company with Dr T. Odetara, D.D.S. Harvard, D.D.S. Rand, D.Sc., Paterson, visited Tristan da Cunha in May 1957 taking passage in S.A.S. *Tramont*.

Emergency dental treatment was carried out for some of the islanders. Some 214 were clinically examined plus remaining 24 being very ill and samples of drinking water, urine and types of food were obtained to ascertain the general intake of the population.

With the cessation of Royal Naval dental facilities at the Simonstown Naval Base it may not be possible to send Naval dental officers (by whom most of the previous dental surveys have been made) to Tristan in future, and it seems appropriate to summarize previous findings with those of the 1957 visit in this article.

This report is preceded by a short history of Tristan da Cunha, which describes the conditions and provisions of a small isolated community whose dental condition has been of interest for the past thirty years to authorities on dental disease throughout the world.

It describes the changes in denture which have overtaken these people and which have in time influenced their way of living, and directed them to the ravages of dental caries, from which as Simonsen and Moore (1952) showed in their report they were formerly singularly free.

The Portuguese sailor, Tristan da Cunha, discovered the group of islands in 1505 of which the one to bear his name is the largest, and the only one inhabited today. Thereafter for 150 years nothing was heard of it until in 1658 the Dutch East India ship *Rijkerveld* went to investigate. In 1767 the English and then the French landed there and explored the group, but the islands remained uninhabited until 1780 when an American Captain Famine, landed and stayed a few months, as Tristan da Cunha collecting seeds and skins. Early in the nineteenth century British trade with the East was threatened by pirates in the South Atlantic. The British held St. Helena and from 1805 onwards they also occupied the Cape of Good Hope. Ships running between these ports were often attacked by robbers.

On the 4th February 1811, Jonathan Lambert—master of the ship of Salem, U.S.A.—landed and proclaimed that he had taken absolute possession of the islands of the Tristan group for himself and his heirs (Steven Gassner, 1871 1811). He called it the "Isle of Refreshment." He displayed a flag of

black and red diamonds on a white ground. His party were devoted white sailors in 1812, leaving only one survivor.

In 1818 the island had a new importance as a consequence of the American War of Independence and the imprisonment of Napoleon in St. Helena. The French Government were afraid that attempts to abduct Napoleon would be mounted from the island. A Captain Claret of the Cape garrison was sent there with 5 officers, 4 N.C.O.s, 34 privates, and with them went 10 women and 13 children. Royal Artillerymen manned the two 6 pounders which ran there to this day. Captain Cornishall of the 72nd Regiment was detached to carry out the first botanical survey, a Lieutenant Archibald was assistant surgeon, and there was a hospital assistant—Private Fenn.

The party left Table Bay on 3rd November, 1818, in H.M.S. *Falshook* and the island was sighted from the East on the 25th November. They were the first to bring maize—most of which perished on the voyage—but the party were in fact the beginning of the community we know today. Claret found one man living on the island: the sole survivor of Jonathan Lambert's fishing expedition, one Thomas Currie. He had made much money selling seal skin and was eloquent as to passing days—his legendary hoard of gold coins and jewellery has never been found.

The Governor of the Cape found that it was too difficult to keep these troops supplied, and in 1817 withdrew the garrison. The soldiers—Corporal Glan, married, and Private Swain, single—asked to be left behind to live on their little separated from weekly visits. Two maors (Minkwell and Berrill) also volunteered but left shortly afterwards. Glan and Swain were joined by shipwrecked maors, and an American called Hagen from a sealing ship, who asked to be left there in view of troubles at home. A Dutchman Peter Groot, landed in 1825, and made island history by saving many shipwrecked maors. He became the first so-called Governor of the island and was decorated by the King of Italy, and he received the present of a portrait from H.M. Queen Victoria which now hangs in the island church.

So we have the families which comprise the 150 strong community of Tutuao at the present. Senter, Glan, Green, Repeito, Laventille, Rupert and Hagen (Repeito and Laventille were shipwrecked Indian maors). The Curries and one or two other families subsequently left and did not return.

In 1827 the population was eleven—7 men, 2 women and 2 children (the second woman had come in a canoe from the wrecked East Indian ship *Alouin*. Half this there were two bachelor.

Captain Ames, a British Whaling captain, was asked if he could obtain ten women for these men, and that he did when sent to St. Helena. The Governor of the garrison allowed him to take 5 coloured women, whom he landed and left on the beach at Tutuao at early dawn. The five bachelors chose each a wife and they lived happily ever after. It is from these families that the community we know today has grown, and which presents the social morphology and the matters of academic interest which have led to research and discussion through the years.

In 1834, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel sent the Rev. W. F. Taylor who lived there in terrible poverty for six years. He was taken away when, in 1853, Hedley Kinn of Cape Town visited the island. In 1883 the Reverend Dedging arrived and lived there for four years, and he introduced education. He was followed in 1886 by the Reverend John Harrow who did magnificent work until 1909. Thereafter the island fell into obsolescence and the inhabitants suffered severe privations during the 1904-1906 war. All these years they had to exist by barter or charity, obtaining such necessities as clothing and food from passing ships.

In 1923 the Reverend Martin Rogers and his wife volunteered to go there, and matters began to improve with each stage visiting each year.

The real turning point in their fortunes came during the 1939-45 war when, in 1942, a Naval party was landed to form a radio and meteorological station. In charge of the party was a doctor—Surgcon Lieutenant Commander F. J. S. Woolley, O.B.E., R.N.V.R., who was supported by a Chaplain and a Nursing Sister. The medical officer was also styled the "Governor" of the island. With the Headman—William Kogotto—and a party of 10 he formed an island council. Plans were made by this council for the building of a Farm-hall. (A new one is now in the process of being built, and it will be named the Prince Philip Hall to commemorate the recent visit of H.R.H. the Duke of Edinburgh to H.M. Yacht *Britannia*.)

At first the party was known as Feb 9, but in 1944 it was commissioned H.M.S. *Admiral Feb*. At this commissioning they chose a West African wolf boat for the naming ceremony by Mrs. Woolley, and the "Governor" made a speech before the islanders. The boat ship was decorated with an empty champagne bottle filled with fruit with coloured with a dash of rum.

Woolley and his council faced a number of problems which included the control of pricing, the reduction of prices who fleeced the patients, the rate of wages, the suppression of venueing, land protection and the control of the unproductive. The main change, however, was in the introduction of money, British South African currency being used. An island newspaper *The Tristan Times* was first produced in 1943 selling for 2 cigarettes, 3 potatoes or a halfpenny.

Soon after the war an Administrator was appointed. His staff (apart from the Fidsin who remain an S.P.G. commitment) comprised a doctor, school teacher, agricultural and nursing sister. The Colonial Development Corporation came to the help of the island by building a fish-canning factory, the principal product being the canning of mackerel for export. Last year this factory began to pay for the first time.

The main income of the island from which the Administrator funds his outgoings is from the sale of stamps. Philatelists have spent £35,000 since January 1953 on the present issue. Of the average annual income of £12,000 a year, the Administrator, in addition to the outgoings for his European staff (now including a Census Manager) must pay the development corporation £2,000 a year for the freightage from Cape Town to Tristan of 668 tons of

supper, beer and cheese per annum. Thus the long arm of civilization has reached the islanders who are now able to purchase from the canteen, with the money they earn from fishing, the sweet foodstuff which is their unaccustomed delight, and duty has slackened.

#### GENETICS

It has been stated that the islanders are descended from mixed European and coloured stock. The persons imported from St Helena were probably of Malayan or African origin, which may have influenced the dentition favourably. The coloured influence is evident in the facial features of the islanders. As an example, there is the incidence of a degree of bruxism (teeth grinding) and deep forehead. The racial influence, however, is not easily recognizable in other dental details. It may be possible, and have influenced their previously excellent dentition. No doubt their European and mixed ancestors had healthy dentitions, because there are very few examples of dysplasia.

#### HEALTH

The general health of the islanders is good. Segerson (1888) reported that the children appeared to be rather slow in development, and the fertility of the Tristan marriages appeared to be decreasing. He found, however, that the islanders showed no clinical evidence of endocrine disturbance or of rickets, scurvy, beriberi, hypothyroidism or other nutritional deficiencies, or of asplenia, tuberculosis, venereal disease, disease of the heart, lungs or kidneys (or both the exception of mild endemic dysentery) of the gastro-intestinal tract. The present medical officer of the island substantiated these observations in some degree—but he stated that he had noticed some signs of obesity due to starve-bingeing which is the subject of study at present.

Epidemics of common cold invariably appear whenever anyone from the 'outside world' visits the island.

The island is infested with rats.

#### DIET

Until the post-war years the islanders have depended almost entirely upon local food sources for the bulk of their caloric intake. Fish and potatoes formed their staple diet, potatoes being preferred to fish. Only occasionally was flour or sugar procured from visiting ships.

In view of the limited stocks of animals, meat was considered a luxury and was served for birthdays or special occasions. The number of cattle on the island at certain periods and, in fact, today, would suggest that there was plenty of milk, but there has never been abundance. The cattle are of poor quality, and lack pasture and proper care, consequently butter and cheese have played no significant role in the diet. In January and February of each year parties pull over in their canvas boats to Inaccessible Island where

young mollyhawk— are taken from these nests. These are to the dog their greatest delicacy, and they like to render down the fat from them in which to fry their potatoes. In September and October, expeditions are made for mollyhawk, porcupine and porcupine eggs, and a succulent red crossberry is found on the mountains. Some apples are grown. Tea and coffee were grown formerly and only obtained by barter from visiting ships.

The state of affairs changed completely with the establishment of the Trusts Development Corporation mission. All forms of proprietary foods can now be obtained, and sugar and sugar can be purchased in proportion to the prosperity of the islanders. 21 tons of sugar and 700 lb. of cocoa were sold to the 250 islanders from the coasters during a six month period in 1937.

#### DENTAL TREATMENT

The greater portion of the dental treatment has been afforded by Royal Naval dental officers during their short visits to the island and the dental officer of R.M.S. *Cassius* treated several of the islanders on board when his ship was on a hasty world cruise in February 1937. At other times the resident medical officer does his best and has attempted a little semi-permanent ultraviolet treatment.

Besides the present 1937 Survey, investigations have been carried out by Marshall (Surgeon R.N.S. *Albatross*) in 1935, Simpson and Moore in 1932, Byrne and Moore in 1931, Sogomon in 1930, Gamble in 1923 and King-Turner and Davis in 1922.

The figures show that although there is some difference of diagnosis, which is understandable considering the number of independent investigators, there has been a significant amount of agreement in the examinations.

#### TOOTH STRUCTURE

In his very full report, Sogomon noted a retardation of dental development, which it has not been possible to substantiate in succeeding surveys in view of the time factor. Apart from that there appears to be no marked abnormality although radiographs revealed marked diffuse calcification in the pulp chamber and root canal.

The suggestion of mottling has not been proved by further investigation, and the presence of white or brown spots in the enamel does not appear to be different from most communities, and certainly is not sufficiently marked to suggest any endemic influence. Hypoplasia was present, but not to any unusual degree.

#### GINGIVAL LESIONS

There were very few examples of gross gum disease, and no infective lesions were observed. There was much calculus and evidence of oral neglect. The toothbrush is not often used.

## DENTAL HEALTH

The following table sets out the findings of the various surveys:

		1952	1957	1962	1965	1967
DENTAL SURVEY	Total number of persons examined	142	173	238	227	214
	Total number of teeth examined	4,968	6,718	8,782	6,455	5,441
	Total number of teeth carious	78	208	179	93	100
	Percentage of total carious	1.54	3.1	2.03	1.44	1.84
	Percentage Examined	1.11	1.18	0.82	0.74	0.62
Tooth	Examined	78	179	202	127	111
	% carious (of number examined)	1.42	4.4	9.1	11.45	9.4
	Missing (including un-erupted - 1st molar)	—	—	—	416	409
Dental Survey	Examined	179	194	701	710	558
	Carious	1	20	67	118	132
	% carious	11.5	2.4	22.4	26.51	23.8
	Missing	—	—	—	—	40
Mouths free from caries and extractions						
Mouths free from caries and extractions %						
Anterior	Normal	81.70	80.3	70.2	72.10	70.08
	Compacted	4	7	7	16	45
	% Normal	97.42	96.7	96.4	93.34	93.34
Posterior	Normal	152	189	214	227	208
	High	4	3	3	0	0
	% Normal	97.42	96.4	97.6	96.1	96.5
TARTAR						
Anterior	Anterior	19	31	111	116	120
	Moderate	23	49	50	—	—
	Heavy	18	34	59	—	—
	—	—	—	—	76	10
Posterior	Posterior	—	—	—	12	21
	Moderate	—	—	—	7	26
	Heavy	—	—	—	—	26
	—	—	—	—	—	—
GUMS						
Healthy	Healthy	149	177	144	110	121
	Compromised	3	46	17	108	63
	—	15.2	11.7	14.2	16.6	16.7
Periodontitis	Periodontitis	3	8	30	13	8
	Percentage healthy	92.41	69.4	67.4	47.02	66.05
	Percentage compromised	1.21	26.0	27.8	66.75	45.12
	Percentage periodontitis	1.22	4.3	4.52	9.45	1.7

Tables of the incidence of caries in the lower age groups are given to emphasize the deterioration in the children's teeth.

Age Group 1-5 Deciduous Teeth	1952	1957	1962	1965	1967
No. of persons examined	22	22	22	19	17
No. of teeth examined	371	327	365	548	361
Carious	82	14	127	11	34
Missing	—	—	—	5	18
Age Group 6-15					
No. of persons examined	40	41	45	66	68



Permanent Teeth		1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
No. of teeth examined		444	311	307	75	447
Caries		511	36	19	47	86
Missing		52	52	72	32	3
Deciduous Teeth						
Teeth examined		252	415	345	345	235
Caries		1	7	46	18	49

#### Fluorine

Some investigators have suggested that the previous immunity to caries might have been due to the presence of some protective factor such as fluorine in the diet.

Samples of drinking water, urine and fish were obtained for analysis by the Government Chemist and an abridged report of their findings is given below.

#### Results of Analysis

##### Water

Samples of water were collected at the following points:

- (1) Spring source
- (2) Water run
- (3) Dam
- (4) Hospital
- (5) Village tap (lower)
- (6) Village tap (higher)

All the samples contained 0.65 part per million fluoride as  $F^-$ . The supply is very soft (total hardness 5 p.p.m. as  $CaCO_3$ ) and contains only a small amount of dissolved salts (50 p.p.m. dried at  $100^\circ C.$ ). It is neutral or very slightly alkaline in reaction with a pH value of 7.3 to 7.5.

##### Urine

	Age (years)	Volume (ml.)	Fluoride as $F^-$	
			Parts per million	Milligrams
1st child	7	765	0.15	0.12
2nd child	8	763	0.15	0.22
3rd child	9	762	0.15	0.23
4th child	9	758	0.16	0.26
5th child	11	1439	0.25	0.37

##### Fish

Specimens of four species of fish, brookings, muskies, suckers and perch, were received, preserved in 10 per cent formaldehyde solution. After draining off the formaldehyde the samples were weighed, covered with 250 ml. of distilled water and allowed to simmer for one hour. After cooking, the flesh was separated from the bones and skin and weighed. Fluoride determinations were then made on the following:

- (1) Formaldehyde solution drained from fish samples
- (2) Water in which fish was cooked
- (3) Cooked flesh of the fish

Species of fish Fluoride as  $F^-$ —parts per million

	(1)	(2)	(3)
Brookings	0.04	0.05	1.05
Muskies	0.05	0.05	0.45
Suckers	0.04	0.04	1.05
Perch	0.05	0.05	1.15

The fluoride content of the formaldehyde solution used for preserving the fish was 0.35 p.p.m. F.

All results are given in the nearest 0.05 p.p.m. F.

(1) The drinking water contains only traces of fluoride and confirms the result of the previous examination that the fluoride content of the supply is very low.

(2) The amount of fluoride in the urine of children excreted per day is similar to that of French children of the same age group and is of the same order as the samples examined in November, 1955.

(3) The fluoride content of the cooked flesh of four species of fish ranged from 0.85 to 1.15 parts per million F. On the basis of the raw flesh this is equivalent to 0.55-0.85 p.p.m. F values which are similar to those for the raw flesh of blackish and livefinners examined in January, 1957, and to several species of fish eaten in Singapore.

Only traces of fluoride were found in the formaldehyde solution used for preserving the fish and in the water in which the samples of fish were cooked.

This report appears to dispel any charges of fluorosis.

#### CONCLUSION

Although many investigations into the cause of dental caries have shown that no one theory, alone, fits all the known facts, the enquiry made from the aetiological or prototypic approach, in biological or biochemical studies or through calculus or fluoride metabolism, yet, investigations at Trovan de Costa appear to show that a rapid and severe deterioration has taken place in what was formerly a healthy isolated community. It is difficult to find any alterations in the lives of these people which would cause this, except the introduction of, and the steadily increasing consumption of, "sophisticated" foods such as refined flour, sugar and alcohol.

It should be a sobering thought that the benefits of civilization are being bought at such high cost by the inhabitants of Trovan de Costa.

It is strongly recommended that organized dental treatment should be provided for these islanders who, due to interbreeding, are already showing signs of debility. Oral hygiene can be expected to act with more virulence here than in a community where this was not the case.

A dental survey, with a treatment, should be done for a period of three months in the first instance, thereafter, annually for one month each year until the dental treatment requirements have been fulfilled.

The dental condition of the children is appalling and the most urgent kind of treatment required is the removal of their erupted teeth. It would be wise to carry this out with the aid of general anaesthesia.

The several dental surveys at Trovan de Costa have produced interesting material for authorities in many countries of the world. These few dental

visitors who have visited the island have not only enjoyed the adventure of so doing but have had the privilege of taking part in the valuable scientific research. They, by giving what control treatment was possible during their short stay, have the satisfaction of feeling that they have been able to help these suffering Tertianaries in a small way.

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OF SHAKESPEARE

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## Introduction

- |      |                 |  |
|------|-----------------|--|
| 1511 | <i>Familiar</i> | just like the brook and the meadows, which were as one —<br><i>As a Field that hath a Brook in it</i>  |
| 1512 | <i>Shower</i>   | I will back you a meadowside now from the further end of <i>Am</i> —<br><i>Which still shows / Amour in it</i>   |
| 1550 | <i>Shower</i>   | Wine, your fountain —<br>He and his meadows, as are 'Waters a song' — <i>King John</i> II. 2<br><i>His fountain</i> <i>which was possibly not a brook or a meadows, as he thought</i><br><i>His shower</i> <i>(Cynthia's fountain)</i> |
| 1554 | <i>Green</i>    | His eyes to be more subtle in being <i>translucent</i> —<br>a great man I'll warrant, I know by the looking on a tooth —<br><i>Shakespeare's Twelfth, act. II.</i>   |

**Table 1**

- [illegible]

[illegible]

- 1986 Award** Crowned as the nation's top table of her year!  
 Having it all: the winning combination of her beauty  
 And intellect as her love is

(Source: *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 2000, 283: 2623-2628.)

[illegible]

After 18 of Pinner was married to decide as his condition of divorce, and the collar of the shirt of suspicion for right hand was lifted into a business suit of a man mentioned. The first was pulled from his body with still hot pores of burning of rain and impurities, were removed upon the woman's, and worked hard upon the world. To show the speed of heres, they better were located in the first summer of his body, which was also a woman.

The rock, long ago mentioned by Shakespeare, was not a highly mineralized carbonate. The following sample is taken from the south of, and just to the westward of, the site of Thomas Foster Garrison's "lost" chapel and contains, besides the *Strophomena* of which it is 75%.

[illegible]

- [illegible]

[illegible]

These examples, on the one hand, and the information from the few studies of the

- 1985, October**      *Went with wife Rose across Iowa and north Iowa states. 2nd time. 1st in 1978.*

- Bill:** *time* It would be God that the archer says  
 If golden metal that must reach my brow  
 Now and last and all - to say so, in the house  
 Assured to be the work, doubly secure.

Just as we can see how the different kinds of

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- 1594 *Julius* No, were I in the associate of all the nations  
in the world, I would not tell you on any purpose. —*Henry IV, Part 1*, v, 4.  
The question is, the associate you say, my words concerned them the while,  
the while had been individual, and then he drops.

- 1595 *Antony* would I knew the villain,  
I would have done him. —*Plautus's Truce*, ii, 1.  
It has not more means any other villainous in this form of villainy whose origin  
is individual. Hence, change in thinking is by character. "And" returns again.  
The question is, whether this is the villain, such as would be produced by  
ignominy. Such an experiment is in keeping with the scene's.

- 1596 *Demetrius* For so I am, I lay upon the rack.  
*Perseus* Upon the rack, Demetrius? there another.  
What signifies there is strangled with your love,  
Ay, but I fear you speak upon the rack.  
What then withheld all words, my friend. —*Merchant of Venice*, iii, 1.  
[The Merchant of Venice was selected as Demetrius's Fall in 1596: the scene just  
was the rack itself. It is the subject of the act. 159-160.]

- 1597 *Demetrius* Even like a man, now linked from the rack.  
So long my hands with long supplications. —*Henry IV, Part 1*, v, 1.

- 1598 *Antony* He has a son, who shall be hard upon thee, then,  
certain dead with living, not in the hand of a  
man's hand. There shall tell be in three-quarters  
and a dead hand. There, however, I agree with experience  
in some other but before. There, then, as  
he is, and in the future day, prophecies  
prophecies shall be in no manner a break, with  
the first feeling with a wonderful and agreeable  
about the it to be held back and in three quarters to  
death. —*Henry IV, Part 1*, v, 1.

- 1599 *Demetrius* He says so well, as if thy tongue were quick,  
Why, were that not a test, and worth it then?

*Antony*  
Alas, a generous piece of warm blood  
Like in a building Demetrius, then I will send  
Death and hell between thy mind and  
Coming and going with thy heavy breath  
And, notwithstanding, all the best of blood —  
As, from a woman with three moving spirits —  
Yet the thy slender back and in three lines  
Building. —*Henry IV, Part 1*, v, 1.

[There is a great question about the scene, but the best is to be found in the scene's  
context, in addition to the line of history. "Demetrius" is the only name that  
has a connection, a slight one, in the scene, a word in the scene, when the scene  
ought to be taken up with the power of death and experience.]

- 1599 *Demetrius* Thus have I been, to the rack with love. 'Tis I know, you  
love by your, but we will know your purpose.

*Antony*  
Be not so late. The Duke  
Does so have much the finger of mine than he  
Does with his own. —*Henry IV, Part 1*, v, 1.

#### TRANSMUTATION

- 1599 *Demetrius* These almost words are never in my faith  
To hold against with Hydrargyrum  
That such of words are when the scene  
has the words of mine. —*Merchant of Venice*, iii, 1.



- 1379 *Severus* Your Honor's players, having your commission  
Are come to play a pleasant comedy;  
For so your Honors hold it fit I trust,  
Having two months sadness built upon it, point-blind  
And individuality in the heart of humanity —  
*Tragedy of the Shrew: Induction Scene 2*
- 1380 *King* As it is, I am glad with such-mannered circumstance,  
*Isabel* I did conceive the black oppression, because to the  
most virtuous physician of the world, I have brought him,  
and, as it were, a gentleman, I have brought him to walk —  
*Pope* Marry, Ford, you are not to go home any longer  
who must be prison'd  
*Caio* Why, then, I am? then I am as a mad dog! —  
*Henry VIII of England: Act 2*
- 1381 *Antony* Not mad, but bound, more than a madman is,  
Bound up in prison, kept without my food,  
Whipp'd and torment'd, and — *Antony and Cleopatra: Act 3*
- 1382 *Comrade* What the good now, my lord, why are you then out of measure and?  
*Don John* You should have remain'd  
*Comrade* And when I have found a wife, I have brought her to a  
*Don John* I think a person cannot yet be pleased with me  
I wonder that thou, being as thou say'st, thou art  
born under Saturn, thou should'st apply a moral medicine to  
a murthering stomach — *What will thou do? Act 2*  
*Good and an earnest*
- 1383 *Comrade* With  
One should and speak comfort to that grief  
Which they themselves feel first, but I think it  
Their comfort is to know which before  
Would give themselves medicine to me.  
Faint young men, to a sleep, I think  
Charm up with us, and glory with words —  
*What will thou do? Act 2*
- 1384 *Alonso* Do you not wonder that I am alone in shape of a man?  
*Ferdinand* By the Mass, and in that shape I stand  
*Alonso* Myself, as I like it, stand  
*Ferdinand* It is indeed like a man  
*Alonso* Or like a whale?  
*Ferdinand* Very like a whale — *Measure for Measure: Act 2*
- 1385 *Alonso*
- 1386 *Andersen* I'll keep some fish, and when of age  
I apply to his, I'll keep him — *King Lear: Act 3*  
*(piece of fish will prove an excellent application being a continuance of)*  
*(Tragedy: Induction)*
- 1387 *Alonso* Is this the fellow that the weary Antonio  
Keeps this captain's company? — *Measure for Measure: Act 2*
- 1388 *Alonso* Pardon me the good, with thanks a woman's gift,  
The whole world is not so good as the heart of a man,  
Which I have found this person — *Richard III: Act 1*  
*(piece will prove fish in the water, being a continuance of the medical)*  
*(piece of the water) — The following, applied, example is from Shakespeare's Medical.*



An excellent film, *My Darling Clementine*, and just one of the by turns glorious films from the American Southwest. *My Darling Clementine* is set in the town of Tombstone, Arizona, in 1881, and tells the story of the town's founding and the struggle for power between the town's founder, Wyatt Earp, and the town's first mayor, John Clum. The film is a masterpiece of Western cinema, and is a must-see for anyone who loves the genre.

improvable both in cost and helps the power and equipment of state-owned without investment.

- 1494 *Continued* How early the 1000  
 When was Oswald born? See column — "O. Oswald" in 1

## THEORY

- 1287 *Florida*      *puño p'u m'u m'u*  
That the creature will give their best beloved  
to you, Florida, in his strength — a manly  
Most incident to this — *Wm. L. Rice* P. 2  
(Should use a culture to permit others to see specimens — it might easily  
be so obvious to seeing them explain.)
- 1298 *Angora*      I would not sleep with you, for the good day I said upon great  
permeation and partly to see your life, for I was told you were  
in a comfortable — *Wm. L. Rice* P. 4  
(Commentary was used largely for any working conditions. I should be that way  
that of people but here. There is that no permanent solution to problems  
although there is a possibility that there will improve from the early days.  
Humanities. The example given in regard to the community will be  
the others. The other cases that appear, however, or really to be  
about the community.)

1000

- |      |                  |   |
|------|------------------|---|
| 1291 | <i>Seabreeze</i> | swayed and a sailor: both born in the town — <i>Poetical Style</i> , p. 1   |
| 1292 | <i>Acoustic</i>  | How have you made shipment of yourself?<br>An apple shot at you, in not more time<br>Than these two sentences — <i>Poetical Style</i> , p. 1  |
| 1293 | <i>Times</i>     | Times of history of one world —<br>Where presentism, modernism and truth<br>Seem to dwell — <i>Lines of Andrew</i> , no. 3  |
| 1294 | <i>Angus</i>     | A partial mother of two pretty sons,<br>And which were strange, she was no later the wife<br>It would not be strange of that by nature<br>That every hour and a day in Kansas was<br>A partial woman was delivered<br>Of some of her sons, some more, both alike — <i>Complete of Andrew</i> , p. 1 |

1. Thomas Kilmeyer: "The 10 of 10s showed 100% had alternative or changing the way we think of taking up the gun issue or other national or strategic issues. The last measure was a surprise for many voters."



## Uroscopy

- 1606 *Pollex*      I can see water to the very bottom — *Peckitt's Herbal* p. 4
- 1607 *Strophyl*      What possible doctor thou  
The water of my head had for disease,  
And purge it to I would and please, for life — *ibid.* p. 1
- 1608 *Pollex* / *Fem*      Surely you guess what say, the doctor to my woe?<sup>2</sup>  
He said, as the water shall rise, I paid hardly woe!  
But for the party that sayd so he, he paid me many doles,  
That he should live — *ibid.* p. 1      *Peckitt's Herbal* p. 1
- 1609 *Serol*      Thus follow on, water pure and clear, through your life, the  
water of an angel! This said, in age that was past but in a place, you  
be-continued on your body — *The Herbalists of France* p. 1

The practice of Uroscopy or water eating, the visual examination of urine and consequent diagnosis and prognosis was an art much practised in the Middle Ages. The observation on the appearance of the urine during illness had attracted the attention of physicians as diagnostic means. Relatively little attention was paid to the faeces. In the second century A.D. Galen observed the polyuria of diabetes mellitus and concluded that it was due to the insulin during this time. Thomas Lawrence, the first president of the Royal College of Physicians (1891) denounced the practice of uroscopy. A college statute was passed which forbade its members to make a diagnosis on the strength of urine examination only. A clinical examination had also to be made.

That clinical attention was very much directed towards the urine, both by orthodox and unorthodox practitioners is evident from the numerous references in the herbal to preparations for 'preventing urine'. It is quite refreshing and rare to find a herb with an opposite effect.

'Darnel, Government and Vervain'. It is a milky plant of softest Sature. As it is not without some use, we hath it also among virtues. The root of Darnel is very good to stay gangrenes, and scabulous fretting and eating cankers and pitted sores, it also cleanseth the skin of all leprosy, scrophules, ringworms and the like if it be used with oil and madder-trees. And being used with quick limbeck and vinegar it discovereth knots and tumors and breaketh those that are hard to be dissolved, being boiled or mixt with poppyns dung and leaved a direction thereon made with water and honey, and the place bathed therewith, is profitable for the cancer. Darnel most applied in a goulie, draweth forth splinters and broken bones from the flesh, the red darnel boiled in red wine and taken, stayeth the leak and all other fluxes, and women's bloody states, and consumeth urine that passeth away too suddenly.

*Culpepper's Herbal—Sibbey's 1805 edition*

## Vesicatory Plants

- 1610 *Alchemilla*      this does make very obstruction in the blood, the  
crises gathering — *Peckitt's Herbal* p. 4

(The word gathering extended from this to refer to a different sort of process. The use of such a phrase in a manuscript is suggested in appendix B2B)



## VISIONS (See POETRY)

- 1419 *Love*      "What is your reality?"  
*Days*      How to prevent the heart, mad to kill, reason — *Song Love*, vii, 4

## VISIONS

- 1420 *Form*      in all shapes that men put up and down on their footstools &  
 thrones: the open walks at — *Seasons of Adieu*, vi, 2

## VISIONS

- 1421 *Marched*      Approaches the chamber: and desires sweet sights  
 With a new Gorgon — *Interlude*, vi, 1  
 (The view the Gorgon seems already some thing meant to show)
- 1422 *Watches*      Cries: and up, right  
 Saw! up the mirror eye of joyful day — *Interlude*, vii, 2  
 Darling was a man of leisure chasing the moving images of demigods
- 1423 *Age*      To see her father's eyes up above as I did — *Interlude*, vii, 3
- 1424 *Chances*      My night watches I took — *Interlude*, vi, 3
- 1425 *Abandon*      Eyes without looking, looking, without sight — *Interlude*, vi, 4
- 1426 *Love*      Must open an inner to the heart  
 To a dark light — *Song Love*, vi, 5  
 (Love's vision was fading as he lay dying — It is said that Goethe made a sonnet  
 inspired as he lay dying and that for two months more "blind light")
- 1427 *Abandon*      Their eyes, that were not dead & with death's black veil —  
 (Song 147 Part 1 vii, 1)

- 1428 *Endurance*      Many eyes grow dim — *Farwell* — *Seasons of Adieu*, vii, 2
- 1429 *Abandon*      I see them and with my old eyes — *Endure and Dwell*, vi, 2
- 1430 *Abandon*      When they have been blind?  
*Seasons*      Of both to make — *Seasons 147 Part 2*, vi, 1
- 1431 *Abandon*      For very approach is like the watching word  
 Moves fast to other eyes, in usual stuff  
 And yet the end of all is brought thus close  
 The breath is gone, and the new eyes are dead —  
 To say the air would have them — *Farwell*, vi, 1
- 1432 *Seasons*      For that is certain (that) cannot stop  
 The greatest measure of his strength (that) — *Seasons and Adieu*, vi, 3
- 1433 *Abandon*      Either my strength fails, or their look is gone  
*Season*      And that too true, as my eye as do you  
 My words drink the blood — *Seasons and Adieu*, vi, 3
- 1434 *Seasons*      I have read these books: their eyes are now  
 Filled down the last where I have left — *Conductor*, vi, 2
- 1435 *Form*      For within a eye, glared with bloody tears  
 Glared one thing more to many things  
 Like, transparent, white, night's great eyes,  
 Show nothing but darkness — *Song Love*,  
 Conductor form — *Conductor's M*, vi, 2

(*Farwell* was more actual eye: the visual effect, varying with the angle of vision.  
 There is a strong reference to them in *Conductor's M*, vi, 1. A related image  
 may also be found in vii.)

In the First *Seasons* *Seasons*, as a function of the nature of a perception. A  
*Conductor* has passed the first stage of *Seasons* that he, which is an *eye* (the first  
 eye) by *Season* (the only when the image of *Season* is a *Season* (the first)





## Clinical Notes and Cases

### A CASE OF SIMPLE PYLORIC HYPERTROPHY IN THE ADULT

BY

Sergeant Commander C. D. COBBE, R.N.

The patient A.B. aged 56 and employed in the Admiralty Police, was admitted to R.N. Hospital, Haslemere in September, 1937. His notes are summarized below.

*History*.—Admission was suggested by the patient's own doctor, who, for investigation of longstanding abdominal pain and indigestion dyspepsia. The last symptoms was periodically brought on by fatty foods and so he resorted there to his diet. His food lost a little weight recently. In the first instance he was treated at the medical club where on some necessary treatments were called for. While his gastro-intestinal system was under observation he developed a thrombophlebitis of the left leg and thigh, which was treated by anti-coagulants and which resolved. General abdominal examination was negative.

*Investigation*.—In making a search for the indigestion dyspepsia a barium meal was ordered and this was repeated two months later at the request of the radiologist. In the first meal a pyloric distension was seen associated with slow delay in gastric emptying. The distension was present but unchanged in the second meal, but was undisturbed by compression.

The report reads as follows:

The previously reported pyloric distension remains undisturbed and therefore it is opinion that, be considered to be chronic and not due to local spasm. I am still unable to distinguish any suggestion of an ulcer in this area. A small amount of barium traversed to the stomach at first intake. Although this appears very far due to no old ulcer, I think the possibility of an ulcer carcinoma at this time must be considered.

In the radiologist's opinion the appearances were such that the presence of an ulcer carcinoma of the antral pyloric region could not be excluded and at this point a biopsy opinion was sought.

The biopsy opinion was similar to that of the radiologist. A carcinoma involving of the pyloric, was assumed to have occurred, however, I still need cleared of biopsy 1 1/2 or long between the body of the stomach and the distal end. Gastric carcinoma could not be discovered and delay might postpone the chance of successful treatment. Laparotomy was therefore advised and the patient agreed.

*Operation*.—15th November 1937. An upper midline incision was used and the upper abdomen carefully explored.

The increased antral pyloric size of the stomach was in some degree and palpated. The operation was of a distended fatty, fatty mass, translucent and with mottled brown. The colour was normal. The swelling had a whitish appearance. It distended all quite distinctly but the stomach and duodenum of upper side, but with no definite sharp margin. Apart from this there was no gross evidence of disease. There were no enlarged regional



glands, the liver with metastases and splenic atrophy. At the time of the clinical case, the liver and the duodenum was also in situ.

At this stage it was noted that the condition was most probably due to excessive, excessive vomiting associated with chronic gastric ulcer and a long-standing period of anorexia was reported. The patient's lymph drainage, not too distant, and about half of the stomach was removed.

After operation, the stomach was opened and no signs of an ulcer or healed ulcer were found.

Findings — No ulcer could be found on examination but the mucosa was greatly atrophic. Section through the area in the pyloric antrum shows strongly of gastric cancer with gross hypertrophy of mucus-secreting glands. (Anthrax parva).

### Discussion

The patient made successful progress, but meanwhile the surgeon gave considerable thought to what to do was a unique case, with findings at operation not fully understood. A search of the literature shortly revealed the answer to the problem as an article entitled "Simple Pyloric Hypertrophy in the Adult" by Gordon H. B. MacNought [1]. Mr. MacNought served recently as Surgeon Lieutenant-Commander R.N.V.R. Readers are referred to his article and to its final bibliography, but it is desired to acknowledge here the use made of it in the following remarks.

Simple pyloric hypertrophy in the adult is a well-defined entity, but its incidence is not widely appreciated. It is not, apparently, an extremely rare occurrence in hospital practice. At the Mayo Clinic 11 cases were found in 58,000 barium meals in five years.

Crusellier [2] first described the condition in 1875 and, earlier reports have since appeared in the literature.

The pathology is basically a thick, firm hypertrophic pylorus, and these changes spread into the antrum. The cause of the enlargement is greatly hypertrophied circular sphincter muscles of which the two largest lie close together on the lesser curve but may diverge following a widening of the canal; muscularized channels towards the greater curve.

Complications include pyloric stenosis with vomiting, bleeding from the submucosal venous plexus of the mucosa and associated other diseases, especially gastric and duodenal ulcer.

Clinical Feature — An age incidence of from 12 to 60 years has been described, but many cases seem to lie in the 40 to 60 age group (see below under Differential Diagnosis).

A long history is seldom obtained and A.B. a latent dyspepsia of short duration is quite typical.

If the condition progresses signs of pyloric obstruction appear. Bloating may occur and signs of associated diseases may complicate the picture. The patient may show evidence of recent loss of weight.

*Endological appearance* are strikingly uniform. The pyloric canal is elongated, and the central canal (which may be a little off center) is narrowed, but shows mucosal continuity. The canal is unobstructed by nodules or manipulations. There are extensive mucosal folds in the antrum, but gastric distention and relaxation are uncommon. The "entry" of the pyloric canal is smooth and rounded. In the middle of the narrow canal a broad "offshoot" of lumen (between the two sphincters) may or may not be seen. The "roof" of the pylorus bulges over the distal end cap, giving a "mushroom" appearance; the narrow pyloric canal representing the stalk.

*Diagnosis and Differential Diagnosis*—If the endological appearance are typical, a reasonably confident diagnosis can be made. Nevertheless, gastric carcinoma is a differential diagnosis of great importance, especially in view of the age groups frequently involved.

#### TREATMENT

A high proportion of patients from this condition appear to come to laparotomy for the following reasons:

- (1) To eliminate uncertainty in diagnosis and exclude gastric cancer
- (2) To treat pyloric obstruction
- (3) To treat hemorrhage
- (4) To deal with associated disease

In the first, a partial gastrectomy is often performed, and there is no doubt that this is the advisable procedure where, as in the author's case, a pyloric swelling of doubtful etiology is found.

#### CONCLUSION

With more extension of the consensus and nature of this condition, it would seem, on theoretical grounds, that adequate surgical treatment in an uncomplicated case would consist of resection of the hypertrophied pylorus and distal duod, and restoration of continuity of stomach and duodenum by a type of Billroth I procedure.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My thanks are due to Surgeon Lieutenant Commander G. McNaught, R.N.R., to whom notes and films of this case were submitted, and who confirmed the diagnosis. Also to Surgeon Commander P. R. Fraser, R.N., for the histological report, and to Surgeon Commander J. R. Brown, R.N., for the endological examination of the patient and for his reports.

Finally I have to thank Surgeon Rear-Admiral R. T. S. Budd, C.B.E., for permission to report this unusual case.

#### REFERENCES

- (1) McNaught, G. H. G. (1957) *J. roy. Coll. Surg. Edin.* 3: 34-44.
- (2) CANNON, J. (1915) *Anatomic pathologies in Corps human.*, 1323-1342. Paris: J. B. Bailliere.

## A CASE OF CONGENITAL ABDORMALITIES

### (Isolated Claw Defect)

BY

Surgeon Lieutenant L. D. SHARPE, R.N.M.C.

Isolated Claw defect, a form of syndactylism is a rare congenital defect. Philip Wiles (1948) states that the condition is almost always hereditary although in the case illustrated in his book there was no history of any similar defect in any relative. Wiles also states that the function of



FIG. 1

such a hand can be remarkably good even without any attempt at reconstructive surgery.

Bunnell (1948) states that "split hands and feet are often hereditary and bilateral. Tubby inherited them through five generations, and Lewis and





FIG. 1

Fig. 1 shows the bony bases of the proximal phalanges of the middle and ring fingers of the left hand. Similar bony lesions occur on the right hand.

#### REFERENCES

- BROWN, BRIDGES (1933) *Surgery of the Hand*, 2nd Edn. p. 333. E. & F. Lippincott & Co.  
WILLIAMS, PERCE (1945) *Essentials of Orthopaedics*, p. 352. London: Churchill.

## CONVALESCENCE

### KING EDWARD VII CONVALESCENT HOME, OSBORNE, FOR OFFICERS OF THE ROYAL NAVY, ROYAL MARINES, ARMY AND ROYAL AIR FORCE

This pleasant building was erected as a palace for Queen Victoria in the latter part of the last century and was used occasionally by Her Majesty. After her death in 1901, however, King Edward VII decided to give the Osborne estate, including Osborne House, to the nation on her coronation "to be converted into a Convalescent Home for Officers of the Navy and Army whose health has been impaired in service to their country." Later, various Orders in Council extended the list of entitled persons to serving and retired Officers of the three fighting services: members of the Q.A.R.N.S. (Women Officers of the Naval, Military and Air Force of the Crown, including Marine and Commandants) and Auxiliary Commandants of the V.A.D. (established and permanent established members of the Civil Service of Great Britain, Northern Ireland and Her Majesty's Colonial and Foreign Service Officers).

The house is beautifully situated on the Solent and contains a private golf links and bathing beach. In addition, there are hard and grass courts, croquet lawn and bowling green, a recreation hall fitted with round table apparatus, a library, billiards table, etc.

Osborne House possesses all the facilities and amenities for the complete rehabilitation of patients, suffering from medical and surgical conditions, including massage, physiotherapy (for which a small charge is made to Officers except serving Officers and Officers recommended by the Ministry of Pensions) and special diets. There is accommodation for 50 patients, including women Officers, and bed cases can be accepted. There is a Guest House in the grounds where relatives (except very young children) of patients can be accommodated at a charge of from 5 pence per week. Officers on the active list travelling from or to their ships, when on full pay, or from or to a Naval Hospital, are eligible to travel at Government expense.

#### TERMS

Serving Officers and those recommended by the Ministry of Pensions—without cost. Retired Officers, if not recommended by the Ministry of Pensions and established Civil Servants—at present 15s. a day. These charges include accommodation and nursing.

Prosthetics and suitable patients and patients with active or infective tuberculosis are not eligible for admission.

For other information may be obtained on application to the Home Secretary (Home), House, Elm, Cowes, Isle of Wight. Telegraphic address—Convalescent Cowes. Telephone No. Cowes 314.

# MEDICAL SCHOOL NEWS

Surgeon-Lieutenant (DN C) J. Penington O.H.D.S. was promoted to Surgeon-Elect-Admiral (D) and took up his appointment as Deputy Medical Director-General for Dental Services on 1st October 1957. It was particularly pleasing to the staff of the Medical School to see one of their number selected for the senior post in the Dental Branch.

Surgeon-Captain (D) W. Holgate joined as Director of Dental Studies and Research on 9th September, 1957.

Surgeon-Commander W. E. Crocker was appointed as President for a D.P.H. course on 1st October 1957.

Surgeon-Lieutenant-Commander J. S. P. Rawley, M.B.E. joined on 4th November 1957 for duty at R.N.P.L. vice Crocker.

Surgeon-Captain W. Forbes Gould was appointed Director of Medical Research on the 16th January vice Surgeon-Captain T. L. Chase who has been appointed P.M.O. H.M.S. Dolphin.

Surgeon-Captain J. G. Maguire C.B.E. retired on 22nd February and was relieved by Surgeon-Captain B. A. Griffin Medical Officer-in-Charge and Director of Medical Studies.

The School was visited during 1957 by

2nd S.O.T.C. on 26th January.

The Commandant-in-Chief, Portsmouth (Admiral Sir Guy Courtham G.C.B. C.B.E. D.S.O.) on 5th June.

The Director-General of the Turkish Naval Medical Service Surgeon-Admiral Refik Ercel on 11th July.

The Mayor of Gosport (Admiral P. D. Blandy) on 16th July.

Captain Charles T. Pringleton U.S. Navy Dental Corps on 24th July.

Surgeon-Lieutenant-Commander A. Spinkster Indonesian Navy on 12th September.

11st S.O.T.C. on 4th October.

On 9th December Surgeon-Lieutenant-Commander J. H. Horvath, U.S. Navy, who has been medical officer of the *Sanctis* and is still serving in nuclear-powered submarines, gave a lecture on his experiences to an audience of senior R.N. officers.

The past year has been clouded by the decision of the "Way Ahead" Committee to move the School as reported in our Spring 1957 issue. Although the plans have not yet materialised the decision has made it impossible to proceed with improvements that might be made at Haslemere House.

Changes in the medical aspects of stores, warfare and underwater warfare and survival have continued during the year.

The Royal Navy exhibit at the annual meeting of the B.M.A. at Newcastle in July was arranged by the staff of R.N.P.L. Surgeon-Commander S. Miles made the following report:

## ROYAL SCIENTIFIC MEETING, NEWCASTLE, 1954



Each year the British Medical Association meets in some provincial town, usually a medical teaching centre, where for ten days doctors and their visitors from all branches of the profession see their grievances, share their good will and hope to learn something of each others' achievements. For the Naval Medical Service this annual meeting gives an opportunity to show the profession that naval medicine has many opportunities and problems of unusual interest.

In Newcastle this past year members of the staff of R.N.M.S. and R.N.F.L. presented a display of diving equipment and the physiological problems of its use. World record dives and marksmen to Frogman have made front page news in the past year and the "bottling" behind such activities usually causes considerable interest. The resources available to the naval commander are enormous and, although the planning was done at R.N.F.L., much help was obtained from R.N.M.S. *Reconnaissance*. Exhibits were also loaned by the Admiralty Experimental Diving Unit of H.M.S. *Vernon*, the Museum of Marine Submarine Commerce and the Ministry of Supply establishment, *Porton*.

The latest types of naval and civilian underwater breathing apparatus were shown, with charts explaining their advantages and disadvantages. Current research in underwater physiology was displayed in charts and photographs and working models showed the effects of depth on breathing. The advantages of mechanical packing of certain closed-circuit breathing apparatus, the effects of



before breaking on the scene and the highlights of a 500 ft. dive were demonstrated.

The major exhibit was a model representing the raised line of Lonsdale Woolley, R.N., in 1956, to 500 feet. For five days a small model diver went up and down a management table of sea water alongside which part holes let up to four short descriptions at significant stages of the dive, as the diver passed them descending and ascending. Such an event was, for example, the transfer to a comfortable Decompression Chamber on the way up, a scale model of which was also on show.

A tape recording of the telephone conversation between the surface vessel and the diver at 500 ft. demonstrated very clearly the extreme difference of the voice which occurs at each depth when the diver is breathing a mixture of 3 per cent oxygen in helium. An oxygen-helium mixture was available for visitors to breathe and experience the change in their own voices. This caused great interest and amusement. Many deep water voices became embarrassingly high and one lady, an experienced singer, reached a note a good deal higher than she had ever achieved on the concert platform.

In contrast to the Diving Bell, a model of a blanda as a water tank and 'aquas lung' represented a 'Diving Bell', and alongside the inflatable model of a fully dressed frogman was a 'man frog', a preserved frog immaculately dressed in a swimming suit with a bowler hat and rolled umbrellas.

The raised ra' could was well presented and a touch of realism was added by the presence in Newcastle for the first three days of the exhibition, of the Diving Research Ship *Radson*. Her officers and men worked very hard and expended considerable time for visitors to whom they showed machine diving equipment and procedures, whilst divers made hourly dips into the swimming waters of the Tyne. This was more popular and enjoyed by both visitors and divers, the latter appreciating the intelligent interest shown by many medical men in the personal problems of diving. More than two hundred visitors were on board and a number of officers and men from the ship also visited the exhibition.

Looking back over a busy week it can be said that the effort was well worth while. Much was learnt from public criticism, the interest shown was greatly appreciated, the chance of meeting colleagues was very welcome, and all day there was much of food enjoyed to be seen and ample wholesome hospitality to be enjoyed.

## Reviews

Neurophysiology of the Larynx. By Donald P. Peters. M.D. Assistant Professor of Physiology and Director, The John Haystack Foundation School of Medicine, Case Western Reserve University, 229 East 13th Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio 44106 and New Haven, Conn. 06510.

This 320-page monograph is a study of the neurophysiology and the relations between the systems in the larynx and the systems in the brain. The book is divided into four sections: General Considerations, Oral and Nasal, and Pharyngeal and Cervical Muscles, and Laryngeal Muscles. The first section is devoted to the general principles of the neurophysiology of the larynx.

Most of the material is presented in a clear and concise manner and would lend itself to a general review of the subject. The book is well illustrated with many figures and tables. The book is a valuable contribution to the understanding of the neurophysiology of the larynx and the relations between the systems in the brain and the systems in the larynx.

The book is difficult to read, especially in the sections on the neurophysiology of the larynx and the relations between the systems in the brain and the systems in the larynx. The book is a valuable contribution to the understanding of the neurophysiology of the larynx and the relations between the systems in the brain and the systems in the larynx.

The book is a valuable contribution to the understanding of the neurophysiology of the larynx and the relations between the systems in the brain and the systems in the larynx. The book is a valuable contribution to the understanding of the neurophysiology of the larynx and the relations between the systems in the brain and the systems in the larynx.

In recent years much work has been devoted to the study of the mechanics of respiration but the part played by the individual muscles of respiration has been largely neglected. This monograph sets out to fill this gap and all the muscles of the respiratory system are described in detail. A brief but adequate account of the anatomy of the respiratory system is given in the first chapter.

The first eight chapters are devoted to the consideration of the various groups of respiratory muscles with emphasis on function and chapters ten and eleven are devoted to a consideration of the mechanics of the respiratory system. Throughout there is a generous introduction of illustrations, in the form of diagrams and tables, but the conclusions reached depend very largely upon the expert work of the author who presents a technique of electromyography the results of which are sound and interesting. Details of the technique are given especially in an appendix.

The book is a valuable contribution to the understanding of the neurophysiology of the larynx and the relations between the systems in the brain and the systems in the larynx. The book is a valuable contribution to the understanding of the neurophysiology of the larynx and the relations between the systems in the brain and the systems in the larynx.

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## Index of the Service

### OBITUARY

• Surgeon Captain H. F. FRICKER, R.N. (Rtd.) died on the 18th October, 1957 at the age of 71. Born on the 15th November, 1886 he qualified M.B. B.S., Edinburgh, in 1900, and entered the Royal Navy as a Surgeon on the 16th May, 1904. He was promoted Surgeon Lieutenant-Commander in 1913 Surgeon Commander in 1924 and in 1930 he obtained the F.R.C.S. (Edinburgh). Promoted Surgeon Captain in 1934, he was placed on the Retired List (1943) and resupplied with reduced Class "A" on 27th May 1945.

During World War I Surgeon Captain Fricker served at H.M. Ships, *Osprey*, *H.B. Rover*, and at R.N. Hospital, Glasgow. During World War II he served at R.N. Auxiliary Hospital, Western Canada, H.M.S. *Gloucester* and at R.N. Hospital, Port Edgar.

• Surgeon Captain R. W. DUNBAR-WATSON, R.N. (Rtd.) died on the 28th November, 1951, age 74. Born on the 30th January, 1877 he qualified M.B.C.S., L.R.C.P. in 1898, M.B. B.S., London 1907 and entered the R.N. Medical Service as a Surgeon Lieutenant in 1905. Promoted Surgeon Lieutenant-Commander in 1914 and Surgeon Commander in 1923, he was placed on the Retired List on his own request in 1925 with the rank of Surgeon-Captain. Two years later he obtained the F.R.C.S. (Edinburgh).

During World War I Surgeon Captain Dunbar-Watson served at H.M. Ships *Brook* and at R.N. Hospital, *Widley*. In 1919 he was awarded the D.F.C., for valour in service, and served at H.M. Ships *Essex* and *Chalcedony* in the Retired List on the 12th January 1941.

• Surgeon Commander J. J. REEVES, R.N. (Rtd.) died on the 16th December, 1951, at the early age of 51. Born on the 11th July, 1899, he qualified M.B.C.S., L.R.C.P., London in 1917 and with the D.F.M. &H. the following year. In 1921 he graduated M.B.-B.Ch., at Cambridge and obtained the M.D. in 1926. He joined the Royal Navy on the 16th July, 1920, was promoted Surgeon Lieutenant-Commander in 1942, Surgeon Commander in 1947 and retired voluntarily in September 1948.

During World War II Surgeon Commander Reeves served at H.M. Ships *Shannon*, *Albatross*, *Argentine*, *Argyle*, *Argyle* and at the Medical Department, in Paris 1940. He was awarded the D.F.C. for courage and devotion to duty in face of enemy air attacks.

Reeves maintained a number of hospital articles in the *Journal* and after his retirement he devoted himself to literary work. The first volume of his work, *Medicine and the Navy*, was reviewed in our last issue and was generally welcomed as literary merit. The second volume is already in the press but, regrettably, the third volume has not been able started and may never be published.

J. L. & C. Wynn

In paying tribute to the memory of the late John Reeves, his qualities as author and historian should not be allowed to obscure those of gall and courage which he displayed as a Naval doctor on many of our ships.

In January 1959 H.M.S. *Albatross* was attacked by German aircraft and suffered extensive damage, fire and flooding. The ship survived but with the loss of 125 officers and men killed and a greater number wounded. On this occasion, at the Senior Medical

**Setting of the study:** A small gallery and a district community centre in the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

[illegible][illegible]

During World War I Burgess Company's Walter served in U.S. Navy Coastal defense unit in Baltimore, Annapolis, Maryland.

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1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021, 2022, 2023, 2024, 2025, 2026, 2027, 2028, 2029, 2030, 2031, 2032, 2033, 2034, 2035, 2036, 2037, 2038, 2039, 2040, 2041, 2042, 2043, 2044, 2045, 2046, 2047, 2048, 2049, 2050, 2051, 2052, 2053, 2054, 2055, 2056, 2057, 2058, 2059, 2060, 2061, 2062, 2063, 2064, 2065, 2066, 2067, 2068, 2069, 2070, 2071, 2072, 2073, 2074, 2075, 2076, 2077, 2078, 2079, 2080, 2081, 2082, 2083, 2084, 2085, 2086, 2087, 2088, 2089, 2090, 2091, 2092, 2093, 2094, 2095, 2096, 2097, 2098, 2099, 2100, 2101, 2102, 2103, 2104, 2105, 2106, 2107, 2108, 2109, 2110, 2111, 2112, 2113, 2114, 2115, 2116, 2117, 2118, 2119, 2120, 2121, 2122, 2123, 2124, 2125, 2126, 2127, 2128, 2129, 2130, 2131, 2132, 2133, 2134, 2135, 2136, 2137, 2138, 2139, 2140, 2141, 2142, 2143, 2144, 2145, 2146, 2147, 2148, 2149, 2150, 2151, 2152, 2153, 2154, 2155, 2156, 2157, 2158, 2159, 2160, 2161, 2162, 2163, 2164, 2165, 2166, 2167, 2168, 2169, 2170, 2171, 2172, 2173, 2174, 2175, 2176, 2177, 2178, 2179, 2180, 2181, 2182, 2183, 2184, 2185, 2186, 2187, 2188, 2189, 2190, 2191, 2192, 2193, 2194, 2195, 2196, 2197, 2198, 2199, 2200, 2201, 2202, 2203, 2204, 2205, 2206, 2207, 2208, 2209, 2210, 2211, 2212, 2213, 2214, 2215, 2216, 2217, 2218, 2219, 2220, 2221, 2222, 2223, 2224, 2225, 2226, 2227, 2228, 2229, 2230, 2231, 2232, 2233, 2234, 2235, 2236, 2237, 2238, 2239, 2240, 2241, 2242, 2243, 2244, 2245, 2246, 2247, 2248, 2249, 2250, 2251, 2252, 2253, 2254, 2255, 2256, 2257, 2258, 2259, 2260, 2261, 2262, 2263, 2264, 2265, 2266, 2267, 2268, 2269, 2270, 2271, 2272, 2273, 2274, 2275, 2276, 2277, 2278, 2279, 2280, 2281, 2282, 2283, 2284, 2285, 2286, 2287, 2288, 2289, 2290, 2291, 2292, 2293, 2294, 2295, 2296, 2297, 2298, 2299, 2300, 2301, 2302, 2303, 2304, 2305, 2306, 2307, 2308, 2309, 2310, 2311, 2312, 2313, 2314, 2315, 2316, 2317, 2318, 2319, 2320, 2321, 2322, 2323, 2324, 2325, 2326, 2327, 2328, 2329, 2330, 2331, 2332, 2333, 2334, 2335, 2336, 2337, 2338, 2339, 2340, 2341, 2342, 2343, 2344, 2345, 2346, 2347, 2348, 2349, 2350, 2351, 2352, 2353, 2354, 2355, 2356, 2357, 2358, 2359, 2360, 2361, 2362, 2363, 2364, 2365, 2366, 2367, 2368, 2369, 2370, 2371, 2372, 2373, 2374, 2375, 2376, 2377, 2378, 2379, 2380, 2381, 2382, 2383, 2384, 2385, 2386, 2387, 2388, 2389, 2390, 2391, 2392, 2393, 2394, 2395, 2396, 2397, 2398, 2399, 2400, 2401, 2402, 2403, 2404, 2405, 2406, 2407, 2408, 2409, 2410, 2411, 2412, 2413, 2414, 2415, 2416, 2417, 2418, 2419, 2420, 2421, 2422, 2423, 2424, 2425, 2426, 2427, 2428, 2429, 2430, 2431, 2432, 2433, 2434, 2435, 2436, 2437, 2438, 2439, 2440, 2441, 2442, 2443, 2444, 2445, 2446, 2447, 2448, 2449, 2450, 2451, 2452, 2453, 2454, 2455, 2456, 2457, 2458, 2459, 2460, 2461, 2462, 2463, 2464, 2465, 2466, 2467, 2468, 2469, 2470, 2471, 2472, 2473, 2474, 2475, 2476, 2477, 2478, 2479, 2480, 2481, 2482, 2483, 2484, 2485, 2486, 2487, 2488, 2489, 2490, 2491, 2492, 2493, 2494, 2495, 2496, 2497, 2498, 2499, 2500, 2501, 2502, 2503, 2504, 2505, 2506, 2507, 2508, 2509, 2510, 2511, 2512, 2513, 2514, 2515, 2516, 2517, 2518, 2519, 2520, 2521, 2522, 2523, 2524, 2525, 2526, 2527, 2528, 2529, 2530, 2531, 2532, 2533, 2534, 2535, 2536, 2537, 2538, 2539, 2540, 2541, 2542, 2543, 2544, 2545, 2546, 2547, 2548, 2549, 2550, 2551, 2552, 2553, 2554, 2555, 2556, 2557, 2558, 2559, 2560, 2561, 2562, 2563, 2564, 2565, 2566, 2567, 2568, 2569, 2570, 2571, 2572, 2573, 2574, 2575, 2576, 2577, 2578, 2579, 2580, 2581, 2582, 2583, 2584, 2585, 2586, 2587, 2588, 2589, 2590, 2591, 2592, 2593, 2594, 2595, 2596, 2597, 2598, 2599, 2600, 2601, 2602, 2603, 2604, 2605, 2606, 2607, 2608, 2609, 2610, 2611, 2612, 2613, 2614, 2615, 2616, 2617, 2618, 2619, 2620, 2621, 2622, 2623, 2624, 2625, 2626, 2627, 2628, 2629, 2630, 2631, 2632, 2633, 2634, 2635, 2636, 2637, 2638, 2639, 2640, 2641, 2642, 2643, 2644, 2645, 2646, 2647, 2648, 2649, 2650, 2651, 2652, 2653, 2654, 2655, 2656, 2657, 2658, 2659, 2660, 2661, 2662, 2663, 2664, 2665, 2666, 2667, 2668, 2669, 2670, 2671, 2672, 2673, 26

**Samuel Y. Yeh, MD and M. C. Man, DPM, DABCP, M.C. (P.M.F.)** Medical Director-Clinical and Lab Services

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[illegible]

**Diploma in Medical Radiology: Diagnostic—Diagnostic Certificate, I Class (D.R.T. I/A)**  
B. Reddy, B.S.

DeCoursey, J. H. and Brown, J. H. 1984. *Reproductive Physiology*. W. B. Saunders, Philadelphia, PA.

Palmer, Harvard College of Sciences—Department of Science, Lawrence A. M. Taylor, M.S.

1999

To: Margaret Rose Ashford—W. B. Ashford, (15-56) as Medical Officer in Charge,  
P. H. Hospital, Chatham, via: Margaret Rose Ashford, 11 Diamond, C. B., 12 W. 12 St. S.  
to Margaret Rose Ashford—W. B. Ashford (15-56) 104 C. H. Jackson (15-56)  
To: Margaret Rose Ashford—W. B. Ashford (15-56) 104 C. H. Jackson (15-56)

The following personal writings have not received my approval in date.

To: Surgeon General—T. F. Dwyer, J. C. MacDonald, E. H. R. Ross, M. A. Ryan, Chair

To Request Consideration—*See* Order, No. 60-17894-1/C.

To: **Wagner's Corporate Office**, 400 E. Chicago, 4th Floor, Chicago, IL 60611

[illegible]

Let  $\mathcal{H}_1$  denote the set of all  $\mathcal{H}$  such that  $\mathcal{H} \in \mathcal{H}_1$  and  $\mathcal{H} \in \mathcal{H}_1$ .

7. *How many times have you been in a fight with a friend or family member in the last 12 months?*

## ENVOY TO GREE THE DECEMBER 1911

To Surgeon Captain—J. A. Wayland  
To Surgeon Commanders—H. A. Gray J. F. Matting

## ENVOY TO GREE THE DECEMBER 1911

To Surgeon Commanders—J. F. Toia

## TRANSFERRED TO PERMANENT LIST

Surgeon Lieutenant E. W. F. Paul O. O. McCaffrey  
Surgeon Lieutenants—D. A. Campbell A. Moore C. T. Year

## ENTRIES FOR SHORT SERVICE COMMISSION

J. P. Beck MR ChR M P Brady MR ChR A. C. Brunsell MR BCh  
C. Brough MR ChR P. P. A. Green MR BR P. L. Cook MP BR MR ChR  
L. R. C. P. DeLong MR BR D. H. DeLong MR BR M. Elphinstone MR  
BCh J. P. Eden MR ChR L. R. C. P. A. L. Harrow MR ChR J. A. Hume MR  
BR M. J. Jones MR BR MR ChR L. R. C. P. R. P. L. Jones MR BCh  
W. F. Jones MR BR E. E. Jones MR BR M. G. Jones MR BR  
MR ChR L. R. C. P. D. J. Jones MR BR MR ChR L. R. C. P. F. H. Jones  
MR BR J. W. Jones MR BR L. R. C. P. W. A. Jones MR BR L. R. C. P. F. H. Jones  
Hawley L. R. C.

## TRANSFERRED TO SHORT SERVICE COMMISSION

Temporary Acting Surgeon Lieutenants A. E. Cameron H. E. MacDonald J. W. Young

## RETIREMENTS

Surgeon Rear-Admiral A. A. Forbes C. R. & P. E. G. J. S.  
Surgeon Rear-Admiral (D. L. F. G. Jones C. F. J. S.  
Surgeon Captain T. B. Folland G. M. J. S. W. F. Jones G. R.  
Surgeon Commanders J. W. A. Jones  
Surgeon Lieutenants—J. D. Jones D. G. Jones M. H. Jones G. R. Jones H. E.  
Jones D. E. Jones, Captain MacDonald C. D. Watson Jones

## RESERVE OFFICERS

## PROMOTIONS

To Acting Warlike Lieutenant—W. Jones (1911) J. A. F. Jones (1911)  
To Acting Warlike Sub-Lieutenant—R. E. Jones (1911) J. A. F. Jones (1911)  
W. J. Jones MR ChR C. M. Jones (1911) G. D. Jones MR ChR C. M. Jones (1911)

## RETIREMENTS

Warlike Lieutenants—J. D. Jones H. E. Jones T. Jones J. E. Jones T. Jones  
Hawley C. R.

## QUEEN ALEXANDRA'S ROYAL NAVAL NURSING SERVICE

## HONOURS AND AWARDS

Member (and Chief) of the Royal Naval Club.

Superintending Nurse Mrs. W. J. G. G. G.

Senior Nursing Sister Mrs. C. Thompson

## PROMOTIONS

First Lieutenant 5-4-27—Miss S. M. Houston. Miss E. C. MacDonald. Miss B. Wagon.

## RE-ENTRY

Senior Nursing Sister Miss M. M. Ashby

## RETIREMENTS

Principal Matron Miss M. E. Curran. *C.P.D. R.N.C.*

Superintending Sister Miss F. L. Maynes. *J.R.N.C.*

JOURNAL OF THE ROYAL NAVAL MEDICAL SERVICE  
ANNUAL REPORT 1927

		Balance Sheet						
Assets		£	s	d.	Liabilities	£	s	d.
Balance (31.12.27)	Banks	500	4	0	1928 Subscriptions in advance	31	0	0
	Cash	5	1	6	Balance Carried over	1 507	14	12
3½% War Loan		400	0	0				
7½ Floating Stock		500	0	0				
Deposits Accepted		243	7	1				
Advertisement Charges not yet paid in								
Spring 1927		4	14	6				
Autumn 1927		60	0	0				
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F. Wain,

Supply Lieutenant (N) R.N.

## REVIEWS

"Fish Index." *Journal of the Royal Naval Medical Service*, Vol. 52, 1927, No. 4.

Page 58. Table (E). For *may/june read may/jan*.

Page 59. Line 5. For *may/june read may/jan*.

Page 59. Figure 6. Last sentence of subgraph for *normally read occasionally*.



# ADMISSIBILITY PACKET CHRONICLE—1947

(This page is perforated for filing)

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- 1311.—Medical—R.C.F. and R.N.A.S. Personnel—Treatment of Poliovirus Protein
- 1312.—Medical Stores—Instruments, Appliances and Miscellaneous—Dispensing
- 1313.—Surgeons and Agents



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### THE EDITOR

JOURNAL OF THE ROYAL NAVAL MEDICAL SERVICE  
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# Journal

of the

## Royal Naval Medical Service

Articles

### SOME ENCOURAGEMENTS FROM MEDICAL AND SURGICAL WORK CARRIED OUT AS A P.O.W. IN THE FAR EAST

From 1942-44 with the aid of August, 1948

BY

Surgeon Captain H. L. CLEAVE, R.N.

It is embarrassing to write this little essay as the first person as it will inevitably sound egotistical. Yet, I am well aware that similar difficulties, or far worse, must have been encountered in Malaya and elsewhere. Nevertheless it is a record of what one happens to men living under primitive conditions and on an emotional diet, and of the medical and surgical relief that it may be possible to give them.

My records on leaving Hong Kong for Japan were confiscated by the Japanese, so that the accuracy of the cases treated in Hong Kong is from memory, but it has been checked up carefully where possible. The records for the time spent at Shirogane, P.O.W. Hospital, Tokyo, are complete. It will be more interesting if the conditions of the two P.O.W. camps are very briefly described so that the background of the work can be appreciated.

Taken prisoner while holding the post of surgical specialist in, and Medical Officer-in-Charge of, the Royal Naval Hospital, Hong Kong, on 19th December, 1941, I had two preliminary moves before arriving at the officers' camp at Apple Street, in Kowloon, Hong Kong, in May, 1942. I remained there until May, 1944, when with eight other medical officers I left for Japan. This camp had been occupied early in April, 1942, before our arrival, and much had been done by officers and ratings to improve it in every way possible with the meagre facilities available to them.

Apple Street Camp, Hong Kong, consisted of eleven wooden sleeping bays, a wash-house hut and battery hut. Outside the main camp were two additional

lives in the camp with respect to water supply showed to us, a hospital built for soldiers and equipped at the same time. All kinds of pipes were. The P.O.W. had to produce and carry his own bedding. At each stop of his journey a P.O.W. had to carry all his belongings—no matter how weak he was—so that clothing and bedding were very scarce. This led to a general lack of the animal products in Hong Kong for the winter in the summer. The number of beds varied slightly in each hut, roughly they held 40 beds each with 2-3 feet between each pair of beds.

The camp life was in many respects unfortunate as the large dirty parade ground lay on the windward side so the huts and food were constantly covered in windy weather with a fine dust, which was undoubtedly responsible for spreading much of the banal dysentery. In 1942 Hong Kong had a severe plague of flies due to the breakdown in the sanitation system. Flies were also in unbelievable numbers.

The camp personnel consisted of officers of the R.N., R.N.V.R., R.A.F., R.C.A.F., Hong Kong R.A.F., and Dockyard Defence Corps. Officers of the Middlesex Regiment, Royal Scots and Royal Engineers, and later on Canadian officers from the Winnipeg Grenadiers and the Royal Rifles of Canada, 1 M.B. officers and officers from two Indian regiments—the 214 Pargahs and 57th Bagnat—members of the Hong Kong Volunteer Defence Corps, and about 40 other units and ratings who were employed in the cookhouse, etc. The total number of P.O.W.s varied from time to time due to deaths in and out, but was between 400 and 500 men.

Food consisted of boiled wheat polished brown rice of the coarse grade—there are many grades of rice according to size of grain and the extent the grain has been broken in the threshing. The more broken smaller grains easily become a soggy, repulsive mass on cooking. Some rice meals were replaced by bean meals. Bread was baked in the oven made in the camp and we had about three bread meals a week. The bread was a very light brown colour.

The vegetables varied from year to year and according to the season. In 1942 we had many sweet potatoes—a valuable addition which became rapidly scarce. 'Greens' consisted of the various types of Chinese cabbage and spinach and considerable amounts of chrysanthemums. In all seasons it must be noted that in the winter's seasons the Chinese 'White' cabbage is unsuitable for flavour. In summer we had also the acceptable egg plant (*Aubergine*). We also had frequent supplies of a very large white radish (*Dai-kai*) which on boiling produced a most offensive smell and a most offensive fluid.

Boiled soy bean meals replaced the rice about twice a week. Soy beans require very prolonged boiling and even then are most unpalatable. Animal protein consisted of boiled and later fried fish which was soaked out in the huts in rainwater as there was never enough to go round more than two or three huts at a time. The fish was procured about once every ten days and the ration was about six ounces.

Fruit was supplied two to three times a day according to the local situation. Pomegranates and later on same place were provided each month. Pears

oil is excellent in flavor and texture, but glue—Indian butter purified by heating—provides durability until the body gets used to it. We also had a small amount of sugar each month.

It must be emphasized that the diet showed a progressive decrease in quantity and quality all the time that the camp was occupied from 14th April 1942 until 26th May 1944. For example the sweet potato supply was cut off for all practical purposes while the chrysanthemum roots became larger and more frequent. More important, the quantity and quality of the fish deteriorated. The fish supplied became increasingly frequently the Common Mud Fish. The fish looks splendid, but at the same time makes it possible even to very hungry white men. After many experiments we turned it into a hashbrown, heavily flavoured with curry powder. The soup was concerned by about half the camp and the other half lacked not only the soup but the vegetables that were put into it. Also when a really first-class fish was supplied—and some of the best fish in the world is found around Hong Kong—it was often in a disgusting state and had to be treated as such. The deleteriousness came via vitriolized camp tins. However the commissary had fulfilled his contract to supply to each fish a week.

The caloric value of this diet varied from 2000 calories a day at the start and working down to 1400 calories at times in 1944. The commissary delivered once a month. We then worked out the daily value of rice, frequency of bread made, and the amount of protein oil we could use in each P.D.W. A bit of food came into the camp via the cantons in 1942 and 1943, but after that the food from this source was negligible. The cantons continued to supply opium and curry powder, soap, brown sugar, and condiments.

From about the middle of 1943 until the camp was evacuated a more valuable extraneous source of food was by food parcels. These were delivered to each unit in the Japanese camp headquarters outside our camp once a week. After weighing and frequent removal of some stores, the parcels were brought into the camp. The P.D.W. recipients were the lucky few who had certain contacts in Hong Kong. We were allowed to send money out to these contacts who suffered many indignities and great personal hardship in their attempts of money. The parcels were usually distributed in the camp as P.D.W.'s clustered together to send out their money in these contacts. Much money also left the camp for the civilian internment camp at Stanley in Hong Kong where many officers had relatives and dependents, and where the conditions were very bad.

Our final source of food was the camp garden and food farm. Volunteers broke up terrible ground and produced tomatoes, sweet potatoes, leeks, etc. Although this we made a small fowl and duck farm. We bought the usual Chinese type and English fowls, and ducks. The English fowls soon died of a few chicken syndrome, but the Chinese fowls and the ducks did very well. Lately a good deal of starving went on by the starving population under the nose of the Jap guards, which was very deplorable. The eggs were reserved exclusively for the sick.

The cookhouse meant a fire, since it occupied such a large place in our daily thought. It contained three large kangs—in other words, three small fire boxes for three large open boilers for which we made wooden removable tops. They exactly resembled wire large coppers that used to be in all big houses for the family laundry. Two were used for rice and one for the vegetable soup. Outside the cookhouse was a smaller separate kang for boiling water for making tea.

Fuel was a constant ever growing anxiety. Large logs were supplied which had to be used since the correct use by volunteers. The logs were then stacked at the front of the kangs along the exhaust flues so as to dry the wood and make it last longer. The wood became frequently dampster wood. This gave off a most irritating vapour while it was burning, and the walls always had steamy spots. We frequently missed meals because, although we had the rice, there was no wood with which to cook it. It is not rice made at any time that fuel supply was almost as great a worry as the food supply. Several times the camp went without rice for twenty-four hours because we had no fuel. The hot-water boiler for the tea was run all through the summer months on dry grass gathered from the neighbouring hillside by a band of volunteers who were allowed out for this purpose. Hot plants tea made a great difference in morale.

As the rice lasted monthly to us became smaller and smaller we had to decrease the ration served at each meal and what was worse we had to make one or two meals each day of rice porridge—a rice gruel up and made into a thin type of porridge. The water was rapidly exhausted at times.

I arrived with some knowledge on the diet and cooking, as in 1944 I was elected for three months to the sole rural and medical representation on the training committee. This consisted of the training officer in charge, of the cooks and the actual cooking, an army officer, one robot rank and myself, and for my last two months remained as medical representative on the committee.

All personal washing was done from cold showers. The latrines were of the sporting urinal type, but luckily we did have drainage and not cesspits.

Officers were paid in military pay according to their rank but very rapidly a scheme was evolved whereby all senior officers who had above a certain sum were taxed the rest of their pay for a fund which paid pay to the junior officers. This was not necessary to allow the juniors to participate in the canteen and there where this failed in the food parcels scheme. Without the additional help from these sources their deficiency disease would have become much more severe.

The complete best description of our camp, the personnel and the diet, is:

There were eleven doctors in the camp. Medical meetings were held periodically to discuss our problems and the best means of dealing with them. Lieutenant-Colonel Shuckleton, R.A.M.C., was the senior army doctor and Surgeon-Commander Tinsley, R.N.V.R., was the senior naval one. For the rural side of the camp Surgeon-Commander Tinsley, R.N.V.R., did all the



clinical work. The Japanese demanded complicated tasks before mid and each morning and evening.

Sergeant Lieutenant Dawson-Grove, H.K. R.N.V.R., and I into the work bay Dawson Grove is a well known and much loved physician in Hong Kong with whom from the time until our final release in Tokyo, I worked with utmost confidence and friendship.

The sick bay usually a colonel at one end of one of the wooden huts had an electric denture and some shelves. The volunteer dresser D. C. Longman, H.K.V.D.C. kept there so as to protect our small stock of drugs. Each doctor had started into us in some sense of medical equipment. Doctors were frequently drafted, but most of the time there were three naval for army, and three I.M.S. doctors.

For drugs we were very badly off. We were indeed fortunate to have some doctors which had been sent into the camp by a deviant route by Dr. (now Sir) Selwyn Clarke, D.M.S. of Hong Kong, who did several splendid work during all his captivity. He also sent us at some point butter for the treatment of our pellagra cases. The Japanese supplied us at infrequent intervals with some drugs which were usually not what we asked for, many bottles of penicillin would be sent us. Later on they did supply a little thiamin. As an example of how they would not help us in the simplest manner, one instance will suffice. In 1945 there was a severe widespread outbreak of scabies, for which we had no sulphur ointment. Repeated requests to the Japanese produced none so finally we got it via the food parcels by taking for sulphur butter. It was then labelled as peanut butter.

The army medical officers worked in the M.I. room as they called it, from 9 a.m. to 11 a.m. and then Dawson Grove and I took over for the naval side. We worked side by side. The medical side of this work will be described briefly.

Patients reported with the usual minor ailments, but in addition we were plagued by the following specific P.O.W. complaints. Vitamin B deficiency in all its forms—and at that time the symptoms due to each exact component of the B complex had not been worked out—was rampant. Eczema or burning feet, which made the night intolerable or any warmth aggravated the pain, and several dermatitis which sometimes became infoliated, causing severe pruritus, glossitis and dysphagia were common and made swallowing the rice diet very painful. True beriberi in most of its forms, pellagra and shankles due to riboflavin deficiency were all seen.

The following efforts were made to obtain extra vitamins of the B complex. A yeast culture was procured and after a few initial errors was kept alive and vigorous for the rest of the stay at Apple River. The yeast was cultured in two large wooden buckets which were kept warm at the back of the lounge in the cookhouse. One bucket was dispensed each day as a ration to the whole camp—we lined up mug in hand. Deficiency cases occurred a double ration. The empty bucket was then half-filled from the remaining bucket and both were

tapped up with water, and flour and sugar were added to each bucket. By next day the yeast had become thick and creamy again.

The cooking of the vegetables was done under the supervision of an officer. Vegetables were cut up and then put into boiling water. The lid was replaced and the boiler brought back to the boil as rapidly as possible, and kept on the boil for exactly ten minutes. This was a compromise. We knew that the vegetables had been grown on human manure—the use of nightsoil is traditional in China—and so with that contamination, the handling as its preparation, together with the dust and flies, it must have harboured the various dysentery organisms. Twenty minutes boiling was recommended in the textbooks, but we could not risk so great a destruction of our chief source of vitamins. No one of course was ever sick. Dysentery was common, but severe dysentery much less so.

A small supply of eggs came into the camp. For a few months the kitchen supplied small Chinese eggs—one egg per person for about one-third of the camp each week. The supply soon stopped, but then the food parcels were organized and produced some ducks' eggs. Finally our bus and truck runs in the camp garden were a mighty help. All eggs from any source were eaten raw being stirred up in the stir. After an initial grope the members of the camp accepted this medical advice most manfully, and soon got used to this diet. Some bean curd was excellent as a flavoured agent.

Another source of vitamins was the fruit—bananas, pine-apples and persimmons—which came in the food parcels. Lucky recipients were parsimonious in putting a portion of their fruit into a pool, which was distributed by the doctor to the deficiency cases.

Considering the fact that we were living on a pure white rice diet—often as low as 1,800 calories—the health of the camp was amazingly good. The writer feels sure that this was partly due to the very strenuous efforts for increasing the vitamin supply from all possible sources, and to seeing that it was so fairly allocated.

Scarlatina colera of the legs was very common and did not respond to treatment. Eye symptoms became increasingly frequent and severe, and consisted of oedema, lacrimation of vision, and inability to read owing to the rapid onset of opacities and flares; and seeing the print in a jumbled manner, with missing letters. The inability to read was a great handicap to the older members, who had much interrupted time, due to not being fit enough to work in the camp gardens and at other camp duties.

Dysentery occurred, but as we had no microscope it was impossible to be sure of the exact type. We also had several specific outbreaks of acute food poisoning from bad fish or other food, which produced fairly to slightly cases of cramps and diarrhoea, making people too ill to attend roll call.

There were two cholera cases, but although not familiar with true cholera I remain convinced that we had cholera in the camp. The Japanese took most specimens from two cases of fulminating dysentery at different periods and reported both as cholera. Much unhappiness was then caused by report

going the bus from which each case had come, and by the insertion of a glass rod into the anal canal of every single P-O 50 for stool examination purposes.

For the treatment of dysentery in all its forms we had a little sulphapyridine and sulphadiazine, which had been brought in by the doctors. It was reserved for the very worst cases.

The epidemic study of paratyphoid and brachy-paratyphoid in Hong Kong, compared to our later experience in Tokyo, was striking, and was due to the milder climate and the better sanitation of the Hong Kong camp from Malaya, as first attacks of enteritis, was fairly frequent, and responded to quinine and salicin. We had two cases of dysentery, but luckily they reported early, were diagnosed early, and recovered. We had no amoebiasis. The camp was almost unharmed by the Japanese. Luckily we were spared the malarial epidemics that occurred in the neighbouring camp for ratings and other ranks at Shamshuipo, where there were many deaths from this cause.

*Asiatic bacillus* was well spread, as was to be expected. Luckily we had some vaccines.

The surgical work consisted, apart from the operations to be described, of the usual septic conditions, such as boils, carbuncles, mastitis, abscesses and ulcers, etc. However, abscesses of the legs and feet deserved special mention. These ulcers were due, we believed, to minor trauma arising on diseased skin. Everybody had a marked drying and scaling of the skin on the feet, which had such a very low proportion of fat. The ulcers were shallow and tended to spread superficially rather than deeply, unless they were allowed to crust over. Such ulcers would have presented no problem in civilian life, but they were a very real problem to us. They occurred most frequently on the shin and inner side of the leg. Treatment with cotton or wool without caliche or 5 per cent. gamma toxin compresses would cauterise the ulcer skin. The ulceration would then become chronic and if allowed to form a crust—the obvious natural occurrence—a disappointment lay in store, for the patient, after seven to ten days, the crust fell off, to reveal not a healed surface, but a slightly deeper ulcer than before. Unless these ulcers were kept protected and moist from a compress and completely healed, they would relapse. This treatment was tried and found to be the only one successful—analogue to a dog licking a sore.

Superficial sepsis, however, were common and were opened with a sterile blade, without anaesthesia—and then promptly treated. This was a contrast to the obstinate untreated ulcers.

Sores rapidly wore out, and no wooden camp made dogs, or bare feet were the rule. A case of *epidermophyton* was never seen. The floor of the camp kept the interdigital chills dry, and therefore unfavourable to fungi. The excretion dermatitis of the feet—so common and so very unsatisfactory in Europeans—did not develop, of course, but they gave no further trouble.

The hospital which officially took our cases was the British Military Hospital at Bowen Road, Hong Kong. This meant that the Japanese had to arrange transport from Apple Street camp on the mainland to the transport boat and from the boat up to the Bowen Road hospital on Hong Kong island.

This gave them some trouble. Moreover, as a race they are terribly suspicious. We thought that they felt that our camp would encourage the other, and as change any information that had leaked in. In any case they were most loath to transfer our sick to the Military Hospital. We regularly gave them ask him for transfer, but when at last this transfer was arranged some of the original sick were better and fresh sick were not allowed to be substituted. It was therefore certain that if an acute surgical emergency arose we ourselves should have, in some way, to deal with it. There were a few instruments in the camp—brought in by Surgeon-Commander Tucker, R.N.V.R.—and several doctors had brought over a few tubes of crystal and some needles and thread.

The writer feared that at some stage in his captivity he would find himself without an anaesthetic and still be expected to do surgery. He had brought some phials of sodium cyanide, a syringe and needles, a few spinal needles and some phials of 1 in 1,000 Euphorine. These were to prove of great value.

During the summer of 1942 our first case of appendicitis occurred in a usual rating. The Japanese were asked to transfer him to the Bowen Road Military Hospital. They refused, but insisted on us to do the operation at the Indian P.O.W. camp. This P.O.W. camp lay one-third of a mile distant from our camp, and the road went downhill all the way to it. The P.O.W.s here were the Indian officers and N.C.O.s from the 2/4 Peshwa and 3/7 Rajputs, who would not run over to the Japanese (who cruelly tried to reduce them to do this). These loyal Indians were treated most harshly. They were never denied in their camp.

Our camp had a large rock bay with two blankets and an operating theatre table. Our patient was carried down to this camp on a stretcher by four volunteers. Captain Sirhan I.M.S. gave the anaesthetic—there was some ether and a must, in the Indian camp—and Captain Woodhead I.M.S. assisted me. The operation went uneventfully and was necessary. A rubber blade was used for a knife and Lieutenant A. of Corps R.R. R.N.V.R. very kindly lent me his nail scissors. As I had none. The patient was carried back to our camp and made a quick recovery.

Our second case occurred at the writer's hands. An army captain had a perforated duodenal ulcer. The same procedure was followed, but he was not a very robust type and suffered much pain from the getting up. The rock bay was selected. All these factors and the operation combined to produce much shock. It was decided to leave him in the camp that night to increase the chance of recovery. The Japanese corporal agreed to this proposal. Next morning the patient was brought back to our camp. He developed some bronchitis, but after that made an excellent recovery and had no further ulcer symptoms while I remained on Peking Kong.

Captain Sato Imperial Japanese Army was in charge of all the medical arrangements for our camp, but he took only the slightest interest in us, and we saw him infrequently. When Captain Sato learned that the patient had remained overnight in the Indian P.O.W. camp he was very angry indeed, and this probably led to the change in procedure for the next operation.

Shortly afterwards we had another perforated duodenum about from the army system—in a patient who knew that he had a duodenal ulcer. At the last moment Captain Sato told us that only the surgeon and anaesthetist could take the patient to the Indian camp. This meant that Captain Saitoh and I had to carry him uphill back again. It was an exhausting business and very hard on the hands. The patient did very well, but Saitoh and I were disappointed not to get caught again, as we had made in the camp two leather straps with loops for the handles of the stretcher. We were then able to carry the duodenal from our shoulders for the next case.

This case was a lieutenant in the Hong Kong Volunteer Defence Corps—a man of 30—who perforated in the summer months. He had a peculiar disposition and was a first subject. Saitoh and I carried him down and I operated, as before, while Saitoh anaesthetized. The patient recovered well for a time, but died a month later from a subphrenic abscess. This was the only case that I first doing surgery in Hong Kong and Tokyo. We knew this patient probably had a subphrenic, and were able to get him transferred to the Queen Mary Hospital a fortnight or more before he died.

We thus had three cases of proved perforated duodenum about in about one year in a camp of about 400–500 men. As I never saw or heard of a perforated peptic ulcer in over a year in a POW system in Tokyo, the factor of mental stress can probably be excluded, as life in Tokyo was certainly harder than it ever was in Hong Kong. The cause was probably the ulcers themselves. Our view of operations in Hong Kong and Tokyo was very meagre and similar, but the difference in our diet was very great—as will be explained later.

Our next emergency was a soldier suffering from slipped appendicitis. He had colic and suprapubic tenderness. After forty-eight hours administration he was reported to the Japanese, who agreed to our carrying him down to the Indian camp. As operations I found dead abscesses due to a Meckel's diverticulum. This was the son of a man's friend and was folded back on itself, lying attached at its apex to the root of the mesentery. This killed the blood. After freeing the apex otherwise the intestinal continuity was restored. As we had no intestinal clamps of any sort it was considered necessary to attempt to remove it. The patient made a speedy recovery and was wanted later of his parole. Recently I saw him in London at a reunion dinner, and learned that he had never had any further abdominal symptoms.

Our next patient was a man of about 50 in the Hong Kong R.N.V.R. In civilian life he had long been a private patient for hyperacidity of Stomach. Lieutenant Dawson-Crooks, R.N.V.R. He was sleeping at the next bunk to his doctor. Dawson-Crooks woke me about 10 p.m. one night because he believed the patient had a perforated peptic ulcer. The diagnosis seemed certain to both of us. The Japanese were informed but after a long delay Captain Sato sent a message that the patient could be transferred to the Indian camp next morning. This decision appeared to us to amount almost to a death sentence. We therefore looked our few instruments in the camp-house and operated on the patient in our isolation but under a good anaesthetic.

The patient did not have a perforated peptic ulcer. However, the signal is most interesting. He had a urinary convalescence developing an abdominal mass which eventually discharged through the urethra. The abscess contained quantities of penicillin which was unmistakable. The patient's most significant diet had been rice ground up and cooked to the consistency of a thin porridge, and then mixed with penicillin. Once the abscess had discharged the patient recovered.

We believed that I had missed a piece of glass, which was working its way through the bowel at some point. This is not as unreasonable as it sounds. Very shortly before this the camp had been supplied with over one hundred many pieces of glass fragments of all shapes and sizes—presumably torn from a bombed "Go-down." The whole camp was alarmed at this news run. Later we completely solved this problem by the simple solution of washing all our rice on an inclined wooden plate which had little strips set all the way down—a commonly used method for separating gold dust from soil. In our case the rice was washed down and just soil glass was left on the strips formed by the strips. As the time of this case we were eating rice with spikes of glass, taking a long time over the meal, and spending the longer spikes.

Our final abdominal case was one of acute appendicitis in an R A M C orderly, which Captain Woodward, I M S, did in our own camp. I believe under a spinal. The patient was sent back at work. I did one other appendicitis in this camp but under spinal anesthesia. This last case was one of very severe long-standing, had degrees hemorrhoids which were excised in the usual manner. The camp doctor was a most grateful patient.

Shortly after this operation the server left the camp for Tokyo. One's shoking enormity of the medical work at Argyle Street Campers and of struggling against lack of equipment and supplies. The Japanese did not interfere with the medical work, and in fact showed almost a complete indifference to it, except when the question of cholera and dysentery arose, and for the cadaver forms and classifications which they demanded.

The conditions in Tokyo were almost the exact reverse of this. Here the Japanese interfered with the running of the camp hospital at every point and would not allow us to continue our discussions among the major medicines which they deposited in us from the large store of Red Cross medicines actually available in the camp's warehouse.

My other shoking memory is of the great friends I made among the other doctors in Argyle Street, and of how completely free from interference was the medical set-up there.

Early in May 1944 together with eight other medical officers, I left Argyle Street at half an hour's notice with such remaining gear as we could carry. For ten days we stayed at Shuangshao, a village and other nearby camps in Hong Kong, and then a draft was formed of between 300 and 400 P O W's, the nine doctors from Argyle Street and one other from Shuangshao. We sailed for Japan and reached Osaka in June after stopping at Fortran on route. The ship was carrying wrap serial in Japan. We were involved into one of the

day's field. Platforms had been made about 12 feet wide. We lay side by side in rows facing each other, feet to feet. In the centre of the field lay a pole of all our gear. We had no coats and were lucky to reach Osaka without catches. It may be recalled that the *Libanon Maru* was torpedoed on such a trip in 1942 with the loss of 140 P.O.W.s.

Dysentery was rife. We were very thankful to enter for Tokyo, where all the doctors and were R.A.M.C. centres left the draft for Shingapore camp-hospital. How I enjoyed good food and, and will describe the life and work in this hospital which in 1945 became steadily more like a work camp.

Shingapore was placed on a small island not far from a main railway terminus in Tokyo. To call it a hospital is to emphasize function rather than structure. At the time I had, in fact, been an ordinary work camp. It consisted of five long wooden huts for the treatment of the sick, a store hut and a house where the Japanese N.C.O.s and privates and one of the two newspapers lived. Each hut for the sick contained four large rooms, two little cubicles at the front end—one for the doctors and one for the collection—and lavatories at the other end. A corridor ran at one side of the hut from front to back. Sleeping doors opened in from the sick rooms. Each room for the patients had a raised platform about 7 feet wide covered with straw Tatami mats. The platform ran right round the room except for the door side. The door led from the corridor into a space in the centre of the room which was about two feet below the platform, which was used for sleeping and living purposes. Patients looked off their clops before mounting the platform.

The Tatami straw mats were about 7 feet long by 3 feet wide. There were about eleven in each room. One slept with one's head to the wall and one's feet towards the centre of the room. These straw mats were infested by fleas in the summer and lice in the winter. The cracks in the wooden walls and ceilings harboured swarms of bed bugs. Mosquitoes were numerous in the summer. Our nights were much broken up by all these insects, added to which in 1945 there were frequent air-raid warnings. In contrast to Hong Kong, I can state that every member of Shingapore felt perpetually exhausted. The latrines were of the squatting type. The deposit passed through a hole in the floor into a concrete-lined trench that ran underneath for the width of the hut and which was a perfect breeding place for a great mass of flies. Keeping the latrine clean was a wellnigh insolvable problem—there was no lighting at night—and many were the misfortunes that occurred there. The windows were partially opened periodically from outside the hut by stepping out the contents with a wooden bucket fixed to the end of a wooden pole. The contents were taken to the vegetable garden at once. Occasionally an outside firm came in to empty the latrines, but these visits started around in 1945.

All the huts were made of thin wood which was old and full of holes. This made the huts terribly cold and draughty in the latter winter months. There was no form of heat. Nor hot was there any water in any hut. All washing was done at two wooden washboards. Each ran down full length between two of the huts—at opposite ends and sides of the camp. One tale of one of the work

place—was reserved for the tuberculosis cases. The Japanese, in all their different beds but with a central, large, Japanese-type wooden bath between only 2 beds. In the summer of 1944 we were allowed to construct a wooden one in which had become derelict. The central bath tub was about 4 feet deep and the temperature of the water was raised in high so it could possibly be borne. Washing was first done at one side of the bath but with the use of little wooden oval buckets, filled from the central tub. Then about six or eight people at a time entered the central tub, both by climbing up some steps at the side. Each bath was allowed about 5' on the bath. First the doctors entered, then the orderlies, and finally the ambulatory patients. We had one bath each week, and it was undoubtedly the highlight of each week. One felt really warm for about two hours after that. In winter one could wash with cold water as often as one wished.

Incidentally the camp was warming with rain. In the cold winter nights they were continuously shivering about the rooms and often over coals, and on occasion I have been woken in the winter, as I lay in my blanket-roll, by a rat pulling at my foot.

As already stated, the Japanese headquarters was a house just inside the gate. In it worked eight other ranks and two interpreters, and Captain Tokuda and Captain Sato, who lived outside Shinagawa.

The medical staff, when we arrived, consisted of Lieutenant Goshiki U.S.N., Medical Specialist, Captain Wessman, U.S.A., Surgical Specialist, Captain Kreschner, U.S.A., Pathologist, Captain Chapman, U.S.A., Liaison and Dentist, U.S.N.-C.E.C., and Lieutenant Mohr, U.S.A., D.C., Dental Officer and qualified Anesthetist. Of the four doctors from Hong Kong all were gradually drafted to P.O.W. camps in Tokyo, Yokohama and Northern Japan except for Captain Warrick, Surgeon Lieutenant Dawson-Grove and the writer. We three stayed in Shinagawa until liberated. Warrick was put in charge of the dysentery bar, Dawson-Grove of the tuberculosis bar, and I—after treatment for another dysentery—shared the surgical work with Captain Wessman. However, about the end of August, 1944, Captain Wessman left for Okinawa—headquarters for P.O.W.s in Tokyo—where his ability and splendid morale were much appreciated. After his departure I was responsible for the surgery.

We had about 72 prisoners from the United States Navy and United States Army, R.A.M.C., and two British other ranks who had been proved to have returned and many far beyond the average. The number of patients varied greatly from time to time, but the average was between 140 and 200. They came from all nations and fighting for the Allies and had been captured from all the fighting areas in the Far East. A few words must be devoted to our two carpenters, because we owed so much to them. Harry Peterson, Swedish, a keen engineer, electrical engineer and designer, had been captured on his way by a German raider while working on a Finnish ship. He was stationed in Shinagawa. His immense ingenuity and ability enabled him to design and make much of our medical and camp equipment from the most meagre material imaginable,



Captain Brown, R.E., A.I.F. was a professional Australian carpenter. His skill and hard work were beyond praise.

The drugs at Shuangqiao were all of American Red Cross origin, and were of a high quality. We were only allowed to prescribe within certain limits—dictated and checked by Captain Tokuda. The total allowed each day was drawn by an American nurse orderly from the Japanese warehouse in charge of the drug store. We were also allowed to give plasma infusions with Japanese authority. Bandages were issued infrequently. The rule was that all bandages had to be washed, boiled and used again until they finally became mere tattered fragments.

Just outside the hospital gate was a warehouse bursting with Red Cross clothing and food parcels and other stores. The Japanese would not give them out except at set intervals in great amounts. One extreme will suffice to illustrate this case. A draft of P.O.W.'s arrived in the winter of 1944/45. Their ship had been torpedoed en route to Japan from the Philippines. They had travelled from Osaka in their underclothes and slept with one blanket each. They could not stop shivering violently even for a few seconds. Captain Tokuda examined them individually in a most lenient manner. No clothes were issued to them. We had to collect every available scrap scrap of our own clothing for this purpose. After the examination the Japanese became frightened and roared clothing—when it was too late.

In the winter of 1944 we were twice seized with American Red Cross food parcels. These were worked out at one per man, and a few more which made a bank for the most desperate cases.

The diet in Tokyo, as in Hong Kong, became progressively worse in quantity and quality. Two Japanese orderlies were in charge of the storehouse and cookhouse. They issued the rations daily. There were six Allied orderlies (nurses) who did the actual cooking—even for the Japanese—but the doctors were not allowed to advise and regulate the meals in any way. We were forbidden to enter the kitchen. It was a great contrast to Hong Kong where, as always, felt that we were making the very best of our meagre rations. I would point out that the diet produced between 1,200 and 1,600 calories a day for patients who could not walk more on a smaller ration, and from 1945 the tuberculosis patients were on half rations! In 1945 all up-patients and staff had to do heavy manual labour. The diet consisted basically of rice, millet and barley. There were much less millet than the white rice of Hong Kong. Soy beans were supplied more frequently than in Hong Kong. The quantity and quality of the vegetables were much inferior.

The standard meal was made up of soup and either meat/leafy-mist vegetables or soy beans or bean, or raw potatoes. The soup was flavoured with bones when these were available—about three times a week—and Miso is, only once derived from soy beans was a few bones and the vegetables. The vegetables varied according to the season. The winter vegetable was the large white radish (Daikon) as in Hong Kong, the summer mainstay was chow chow-pai, but in summer we also had green vegetables grown in the comp-

gardens. The new potatoes in the second season were disliked because, although pleasant to eat, the water in them was rapidly carried, leaving one feeling weak and hungry. The rice milled-bushy manner was really the most sustaining. Says beans are easy, but are very hard to digest, even without dyspepsia. They were frequently consumed all night in an effort to make them softer.

The bread in 1944 was inadequate in amount, but palatable. All too soon it became tasteless. The sanitation team the same week as our fish contractor in Hong Kong. He delivered milderew decomposing bread which of course caused upset, color and diarrhea. The Japanese were repeatedly shown this bread. In 1945 we took our own bakery—as in Hong Kong—and baked our own bread. This was palatable, but the ration amounted to only two thick slices per day.

Our cooks had always collected the bones from the meat markets, and in 1945 they were careful to say that they were English or they got no marrow for bones at all. When in 1945 the transport in Tokyo broke down, we had, as well, to fetch our vegetables from the vegetable market about twice a week. A small party of us wearing slaps and kash cloth, with or without slaps, would walk—with two Japanese as escorts—the 1-1½ miles to the market. This was a very pretty sight. On a roofed-over space lay stacks of golden pumpkins, red lanterns, the purple eggplant (*Aubergine*) and sweet potatoes. We loaded some of them on to our handcarts, and returned along roads which, after the great American fire-bombs, were flanked by mile after mile of burnt rubble. Only a few concrete buildings remained standing. The inhabitants seemed apathetic rather than hostile.

We started extensive gardens just outside the camp in 1945. A hard, sunny winter ground was broken up. It looked hopeless for gardening, but we underestimated the power of night soil, in spite of Chinese experience. The squash and cabbage were grown in rows with small trenches on either side of each row. The night soil from the camp was put into the trenches—cover dug in—and in the hot Tokyo summer quickly rotted down. The vegetables thrived! Every available piece of ground in the camp was also turned into garden. The smell of night soil permeated the whole camp.

It was most distressing that, after growing the vegetables, we were allowed no say as when they should be gathered or in what quantity. They would be brought into the slave-houses, left there for days deteriorating, and then we would get several meals with a glut of vegetables, after having had soup with none at all for some time previously.

The officers had large quantities of military yarn, which were useless except to buy a few gramophone records. No food could be bought in Tokyo. I still have some thousands of these yarn. Except for that from our gardens, the only vegetables food that ever came into the camp was a dog that walked in, and was driving in the gut within half an hour.

Our cooking was done in kero, but early in 1945 all fuel supplies stopped. We then had to obtain our own fuel. In the water surrounding the hospital burned many fat trucks. These had been thrown into the sea for safety.

Some tanks broke loose and drifted past our island. As soon as one was spotted some of us were sent swimming for it. We pushed it alongside a pier—now that lay just outside a part of the hospital wall, hauled it with rollers and from the sea over an eight foot high sea wall into camp. The tanks were then split up and used by a special wood party. Many hours were spent by the writer swimming for lost tanks in Taijoo Bay, and in saving lumber.

This concludes the location outline of the squaled camp, which was hot and as inhospitable as summer and bitterly cold in the winter.

All up-patients had to be lined up each morning and evening for roll call, which was in Japanese. Everybody had to know how to number quickly. In 1942 Lieutenant Davis reported to the Japanese N.C.O. but in 1945 the doctor detailed as camp representative—the writer was one for three months— took it in turn to report, we detailed the total number of P.O.W's, the number of up-patients, the number of bed-patients, and patients in the guard house. After this the Japanese N.C.O. would go to each hut in turn and hear the up-patient number in front of it, and then go into each hut and hear each room number. Lack of sanitation or redundancy in numbering produced a wave of last dayings. Neither rubber nor gloves were allowed. Chaffiness of ears and hands were extensive and very painful.

The camps from which our patients came varied greatly in the degree of their infamy. The patients were always recruited and recruited whenever their specific complaints were. Many of the camps in Northern Japan were mining camps, which were bitterly cold in the winter. Neither food, clothing, nor footwear were in any sense adequate for the climatic conditions.

The patients came in batches, following one of Captain Takada's visits to the camps in his district. The patients were examined by us in front of Takada, and the performance was repeated from time to time until Takada ordered their discharge. We had to suggest to him which patients went in for discharge. One felt very hesitant in picking them out, but room in Shengwen had to be made for new arrivals. Moreover, improvements also could be expected in the delirious cases. In 1944 patients were most loath to leave Shengwen, but in 1945 when our conditions deteriorated rapidly, their attitude changed. In the summer of 1944 staff and patients did not have to work very hard, but from the autumn of 1944 everybody had to work hard and for very long hours. We were at dawn and worked until late evening on the gardens, picking and using wood, emptying latrines, mending a big wind-mill shelter for outcrops, and many small ones for our blankets and other uses, and making a small lake for our hand-worked pump. Patients too of us do this heavy but worked in lighter dress in a little picking and sowing factory established at the back of the camp. Work continued irrespective of sun. It must be remembered that no patient had any change of clothing.

The disturbed sleep in 1945 aggravated our fatigue. On leaving the cot we had to dress in one and go to the shelter. These were originally trenches dug inside the camp. We agitated us there in spite of the fact that they often contained much water. The patients were frequently too weak to maintain

due up an overhanging wall that slipping seemed. After many experiments I got to, successfully I think, use the one and shaver which was designed by Professor Work, perhaps the one Tokyo to collect the wooden beams, which formed the shacks but the shacks, like destroyed buildings. The whole framework was made on the surface and built method with the use of hardly any nails. The shaver was, in fact, necessary. In the face of the great fire made our tuberculous but was not slight but the fire was soon extinguished. The "Go Down" just outside the hospital gate were on fire and the down in spite of the heroic efforts of the whole camp staff and patients. We feared the flames would spread over the camp.

It seems incredible in retrospect that the Japanese made us do physical exercises for 15 minutes daily after the evening roll call. All the medical staff took turns as instructors.

As for the purely medical work at Shima gun, I feel hardly qualified to write because although I saw patients on arrival and discharge I was not in such intimate contact with all phases of their treatment as in Hong Kong. The following generalizations are fairly accurate.

The tubercular patients suffered greatly from their segregation and reduced rations. They were painfully thin. Sargans Lactoneus Doreau-Grove did everything humanly possible for them including artificial pneumothorax work. Some cases were referred to me for pharyngeal crush under local anesthesia. Tragically, in 1945 Captain Takada took over the list. After that two Japanese NCOs occupied the front bench and we were not allowed to enter the list except by their permission. Takada experimented on the patients whose morale naturally deteriorated. It is understood that Takada was subsequently executed for these and other crimes.

The adjoining list for the most severe and acute general medical cases was under the care of Lieutenant Guelich, U.S.N. who worked wholeheartedly for his patients. In the next list Captain Clayman, U.S.A. looked after the more chronic and non-reversible patients. In these two lists were cases of beriberi, chest diseases, nephrosis of the liver, nephritis, infective mononucleosis, etc. The beriberi was of a different sort to that seen in Hong Kong. We did not have the frequent glossitis, shingles, scrofula dermatitis, "elephant feet" and pellagra which plagued us there. In Japan the disease appeared to affect particularly the posterior and lateral spinal columns. By contrast, pneumonia was common and our greatest worry. It was the classical lobar or multi-lobar form which we occasionally talked in England today and which never occurred in Apple Street. Most cases responded to massive and prolonged doses of sulphathiazole.

Osteitis due to protein deficiency, with or without rickets-like deformity, was very prevalent. I believe that it was almost entirely a starvation disease. My own spread all through 1945 from the nose, which it first affected, and it reached the lower part of the thigh. It would almost disappear with a suitable position. I lay at night on boardings supported on a trunk at one end and on a higher level wooden ledge at the other. As the fluid left one's legs possible changes

returned to the table. Massive *Ascaris* of this type and size are well known to infest man in this country.

Liver damage from starvation was undoubtedly common. We had five cases of aneurysms, proved at post mortem, and in some of these the liver had shrunk to an extraordinary extent. In some cases for other conditions the liver was large and yellow, while the great aneurysm was a slender vascular structure without a trace of fat in it.

The rest had been always full of dysentery cases. The stools were examined in the pathology room under the direction of Captain Kershner, U.S.A. Three negative reports were needed before our cases of aneurysms could be entered for discharge. In 1945 all dysentery cases were sigmoidoscoped by me at Captain Tokuda's prior to discharge. Fresh stool specimens were then obtained and measured forthwith. I must record that I have very seldom seen aneurysm dilatation and never an aneurysm. Dysentery cases could seldom be said to be cured—relapse was so frequent. Under the conditions of the dysentery but aneurysms must have occurred frequently. The treatment was under the direction of Captain Warren, R.A.M.C. He found that sulphadiazine was more effective than sulphaguanidine for the bacillary dysentery. There was very little nausea and no ill effect. The chief drug for aneurysms was carbazine, which was alone available in adequate quantities. We were not impressed by it. Many of these patients were suffering as much from their aneurysms as from their chronic relapsing dysentery.

Our pathology department consisted of a small room adjacent to the operating theatre. Captain Kershner, U.S.A., was in charge. He had two microscopes and simple laboratory equipment. Post mortems were done by him, while on a few of the more unusual ones Captain Tokuda arranged for a friend, the pathologist at Tokyo University to do the autopsy. The Japanese appeared most tall and expert. A list of the causes of death at Singapore is appended at the end of this report.

The surgical work suffered likewise from Japanese interference. From the end of August, 1944, I was nominally responsible for the surgery, but no case could be operated on without Tokuda's permission, unless he was out of the camp, when his master N.C.O. gave the permission. Tokuda may have been a "stick of all trades" but it is certain that he was master of none. Repeatedly he would operate on appendicitis cases, pull much small intestine out, and fiddle about for a long time, getting more and more angry and continuing in Japanese "dangoo" (wrong). He would then ask me to take over the case, and would leave the theatre. I never once saw him find the appendix. As an example of his intelligence, an American patient arrived and was diagnosed as appendicitis. Classically he appeared to have malaria and this was proved macroscopically. Tokuda insisted on doing an appendicectomy in spite of our advice to the contrary. A normal appendix was removed. Luckily the patient came to no harm.

The theatre was small and contained a high ceiling, ventilator which was adequate for the set of instruments in use. The instruments were American

Red Cross supplies and of a high standard. The table and light were good enough. Covers, towels and gloves were steam-sterilized in an autoclave made by our engineers. Water was heated electrically in one container and the steam led into the base of an adjacent large tin containing the shower steam. The steam stopped by pressing up the lid of this tin—close around which was a wooden box packed tightly with sandast. This produced articles which were sterile but most unpleasant to wear as they were hot and damp.

The temperature of the theatre was that of the climate, as no form of heat was ever obtained. In the winter of 1944/45 we had much snow. Patients were carried from hot to theatre in a circulator and returned likewise, putting shelled on both journeys. The amputations—with one exception for a case of severe burns—were all apical at the start procure crystals dissolved in patient's C.S.F. and lavatory potassium. Lieutenant Mohrman, U.S.A. D.C. gave these anaesthetics to perfection. I never met now a severe post-anaesthetic shock, which is a great tribute to apical anaesthetics under these icy conditions. Lieutenant Mohrman was an ideal colleague to whom I shall ever feel grateful.

The surgical cases were housed in the hot pit to the dysenteries. Men were straightforward. Emaciation coupled with dysentery and heavy labours, made hernia and haemorrhoids exceptionally common. The Chinese leg alterations—that was such a feature in Hong Kong was never seen in Tokyo. The complication that worried the patients was muscular cramps. These patients were very hungry on admission and, in spite of all advice, they could not resist eating their meals. So they ate these rice immediately after their appendectomy or haemorrhoidectomy or haemorrhaphy, etc. The cramps were severe but seldom caused vomiting.

A lot of operations is appended in the end so that only three special cases will be described here.

A surgeon in the Royal Navy had been in Singapore some time before my arrival. He had pyloric cancer and was considered inoperable. He certainly was very muscular, weighing only 46 kilograms (100 lb.). One of the same looks who was exceptionally strong, volunteered to give blood for a transfusion. The patient was given a pint. Luckily it was decided to wait two days before the proposed operation. He had a severe reaction and developed cancer and generalized aedema. However, he gradually returned to his former state. He was then given a course of gastric lavage at night. Very little food was passing the pylorus. At last the great day came and he was operated. He had a limited discharge since that had almost closed the pylorus. A gastro-intestotomy was performed. It was made difficult by Captain Tachibana—who was working—constantly getting in the way. However, the patient did very well, put on some weight and was able to return to his training camp two months later. He had been particularly healthy so he had had two severe attacks of amoebic dysentery while in Singapore.

The next case of note was a patient who had been producing large quantities of fecal material for some time. He also was very ill. Surgeon Lieutenant (Theodore) Livers had cut the large intestine in the right upper lobe and I started parts of one site at the side of the chest and most likely found the mucous ganglionic area of cancer. A considerable amount of this was exposed without producing any bleeding and a large tube was inserted. To my surprise the patient did very well and was later discharged back to his camp. As I had had very little experience of large surgery—apart from incisions—the operation was particularly gratifying.

The last patient of note was Tokuda. He was admitted with extensive *Coccidia* Tokuda found his legs in the effort to fix one corner of his splendorous bed. When the patient was first placed in one corner some time later he had almost impossible gas symptoms in both legs below the knees. However, ingested *coccidia* were scarce, and the gas that passed out had no other odor to be detected or similar to that of a spoiled egg. Little more of note happened, but he survived, and when last seen in an American hospital ship was making rapid progress.

The only death on the surgical side following operations at Shinagawa occurred in a Dutch patient who was admitted with very extensive 2nd degree burns of the front of the chest, arms, thighs, head and neck. The burnt areas were very dirty. He was given a general anesthetic and the areas debrided and treated with a protein violet jelly (Red Cross supplied). The patient was given several plasma transfusions and appeared to be doing well. Unfortunately, it was in the depths of the winter and after about five days he developed extensive pulmonary consolidation and died.

Looking over this development of our work at Shinagawa I wonder if the picture has been painted too blackly, but I do not believe so. The following incident will show the atmosphere in the camp.

In 1945 the Japanese refused to take the dead away for cremation. This had been the practice. The bodies were returned to the camp in a small wooden box which was labelled and put with the others in one of the rooms of the mess hall. Suddenly we were ordered to cremate a body in the camp and were not allowed to do it outside. Much argument ensued, but finally it had to be done. We did our best and it was not easy without apparatus. It was known as "The Shinagawa Barbecue". As this depressed the patients so much, Tokuda finally agreed to our building an apparatus close to the camp garden, and here all future cremations were performed by us.

To look at the reverse side of the picture—what was the highest memory of Shinagawa? Until early in 1945 all the P.O.W.'s administrative work, detailing of working parties, maintaining camp government, fighting the patients' battles, keeping of records, taking the roll calls, etc., was done by Lieutenant J. R. Davis, U.S.N. C.E.C. His work was universally recognized, but it was not until he left us for Okinawa camp that the magnitude of his achievement and his complete selflessness were revealed to us. After his departure his work had to be done by the medical and dental staff of the camp. He will remain as a fading memory to all of us who worked with him at Shinagawa.

As for regrets, and naturally has personal regrets that one did not manage to do more for the patients. We all agreed that we could not do more scientific work under these conditions. We managed to be able to do blood chemistry and find out the levels of plasma proteins, potassium, and other ions, and to be able to differentiate between specific vitamin deficiencies and the results of simple starvation on such as unbalanced diet.

Even without the aid of modern science and proper surgical instruments and medicines, a great amount can be done by observation, and it is a tribute to human endurance and the amazing resilience of the body that so many men, women and children survived even worse conditions elsewhere.





## THE CHRISTMAS ISLAND STORY PART II

BY

JAMES SARGENT, Commander P. D. G. FUCHS, R.N.

### POINTEEN

Towards the end of April Squadron Leader Bradley departed for a mail steamer to Honolulu. One of the last services of his duties was to make an occasional visit to Poveiye Island, which lies about 600 miles south of Christmas. Poveiye was one of those places to which everyone was bound to go, for no other reason than that it is inhabited by the true South Sea Islanders, both male and female! I therefore made it clear to the Commanders that I considered that a visit by a military officer was desirable and suggested that it should be one, a proposal to which he readily acquiesced.

Poveiye is one of the fifteen islands which together comprise the Cook Group. These islands for the most part are small and widely scattered throughout an area of some 150,000 square miles of ocean extending from 8 degrees south to almost 23 degrees south and from 126 degrees west to 162 degrees west. The total land area is approximately 33 square miles.

The islands fall naturally into two distinct areas—a Southern and a Northern group. Rarotonga, the seat of the Administration, is in the Southern group; Poveiye is the largest (3 square miles) and the most northerly of the Northern group.

Probably the first Europeans to visit Poveiye were Montagu and Quares, who passed through the Northern group in 1585. Captain Cook in 1773, during his second voyage of discovery, visited several of the islands including Palmyra, to which I will refer later. There is, however, no record that he ever visited Poveiye. The staff passed its name following a visit from a French vessel, the *Leu's Providence* (Captain Severin) in 1788. There is, however, a marked tendency to revert to the old name some of the natives. The natives say that Montagu, a fabulous fisherman, landed two enormous sharks and then killed Tongareva out of the sea.

In 1822 E. H. Laroche, on one of his trading voyages through some of the islands of the South Pacific in a sloop of 500 tons burden, the *Charles*. On the 6th January 1822, what looked like a dark cloud was sighted ahead, and mistaken by the Captain of the vessel for a storm. Alarmed by the noise Laroche came on deck, and the first thing he saw was, in his own words, "A black low cloud, wreathing like an eagle's tail, got by a couple of hoarse howlers the name of which was already in my ears." It appears that it



Marsden who in 1800, at the age of 21 suddenly discovered that he was going to build himself a paradise—a place where he should be the law, where he should do as he pleased and live as he wanted to. At dead of night he ran away from his home in Gloucester and later sailed on the barquentine *Mary* (Boston bound for Sydney). Picked up with the debris of shipwreck, he drifted in *haravere* in the Cook Islands. The prospecting license was, of course, that he had met a woman of about his own age and much lighter of colour than the other inhabitants of the island. He called her *Ecker*. Following their marriage by a London Ministry of Justice minister she suggested that they should go to her own island, *Pearhys*, where her father would help them settle down and give them land. A few days later they sailed for *Pearhys* but the local customs appalled Marsden. He would not share his wife with the other men as was expected of him, nor would he take other men's wives in exchange. He decided to depart from *Pearhys* so that he could have his wife to himself but back in *haravere* he discovered the same rule applied. All women were joint wives, so men could keep an entire wife. All the children born were community children; they belonged to every family and no man knew which he had sired. The laws, inevitably had so far been unable to bring about a more civilized form of life. When Addison, *Ecker's* sister, began to show that she was, followed the custom that no woman could lay claim to the exclusive love of any one man. Marsden did not appear to object. Shortly after he sailed with the pair of them to the uninhabited and called *Paleoverian Island* 100 miles to the north of *haravere* with the stated intention of building for himself a paradise on earth. *Paleoverian* had been discovered in 1794 by Captain Cook.

The three of them together built a house and planted weeds. They lived for a time by fishing and the potatoes and other garden produce came along sufficiently well to maintain them. It was not long before *Ecker* was pregnant. As neither woman knew anything about childbirth, and Marsden knew less, it was decided that he should go to the mainland and bring back *Ecker's* nurse, *Naam*, together with a cow, some chickens, and a few coconuts. This he did and that the first child was brought safely into the world. It was however apparent from subsequent reports that *Naam*, too, had decided that her children to be would be Marsden's children.

Marsden now got onto his feet. Using the Bible as his authority—and in particular the Old Testament—in which men had more than one wife—as his guide he married Addison and then *Naam*. When H.M.S. *Argonaut* called at the island in 1871, Captain DeLancey found that the Marsden-colon had grown to 18 children, the oldest of whom was young William then aged 9 years. Everyone was reported to be in exceptionally good health with few teeth. The women and children all spoke English, a strange Elsie-like English, taught them by Marsden, native children being forbidden. There were no firearms among the women, all being armed exactly alike. The real paradise had been built. From time to time adventurers from England who had heard of the island arrived with the intention of settling but all were unceremoniously flung out by Marsden.

After eighteen years there were over 50 children. Since 1811 his order theory had prevailed on the Old Testament. Marsters put strict marriage between his sons and daughters. There was only one thing he forbade, his sons could not marry their half-sisters, the boys had to choose their wives from their half-sisters. Strict monogamy was enforced among the children. The order was to separate the sexes proving miraculously successful. A careful account was kept in his Bible of his children giving the dates of their births, the names of their mothers, their names and sex. Both sons and orphans are recorded and the sons and daughters were as proud as himself. Although the island was only one square mile, it was worked with such efficiency that the earth was equally fertile and produced enough food to sustain the whole community.

By 1833 there was a total of 137 people made up of Marsters and his three wives, 46 children and 47 grandchildren. Not a single child was still-born or died in infancy. The first recorded death occurred in 1879 when a child of 2 years was drowned in the lagoon.

When the old man died in his sleep in 1889 he left behind a nation of 483 people. There has been no outside marriage whatever. His eldest son, also called William, ruled the isle after his death. Following a hurricane in 1903 which almost wrecked the 116 island, half the inhabitants were moved to other islands. Towards the end of the 1900s the British Government appointed a commission to investigate and report on the intermarriage of the Marsters nation. They found both on Palmyra itself and on other islands that intermarrying continued. Daughters married their uncle's sons and sons married their aunt's daughters, but all of them were from one common source, namely William Marsters. The commission reported that they could find nothing to indicate any detrimental effect caused by intermarriage among these people. Morally they were alert and fully developed, and there was no trace of criminality or deformity physical or mental. In fact every member of the families examined and questioned displayed the highest sense of decency, honesty, and frugality. The original Chamorro language taught by Marsters is still spoken by his descendants and remains a source of surprise to those who visit the island.

In 1946, William Marsters, the last-born son, died at the age of 84, and was succeeded by his son Noel Marsters, who rules Palmyra today as his grandfather did before him. Although the total population of the island is only 102 (1956), a census taken in 1946 stated some 3,000 people belonging to the Marsters nation and living on neighbouring islands who, despite the existence of new blood, suffered from none of those diseases or afflictions which medical science commonly attributes to interbreeding between blood relations. Palmyra was visited by H.M.S. *Falke* returning to New Zealand on completion of Operation 'Grapple'.

In the year 1858 British sovereignty was claimed over the island of Pouter. On the 12th May 1864 the British Government awarded the boundaries of the Colony of New Zealand to include the Cook Islands, and on 11th June, 1901 the Cook Islands became part of New Zealand.

The inhabitants of Pohnpei are Polynesian and closely related to the New Zealand Maori. There is a strong resemblance between the peoples in custom, language and culture. All have been converted to Christianity. There are two priests on the island, the one, a Polynesian, belonging to the London Missionary Society and the other, a Danebian, to the Roman Catholic Mission. The religious affiliations of the majority of the population belong to the London Missionary Society (Congregational). Only two of the islands composing the state are inhabited today. One is the main island where trading schooners may tie up at the wharf, and *Tromsø* runs radio away, wires the lagoon. Both settlements are kept steep, and each has two great 10,000 gallon water tanks. In Onooka, the water is led by pipes from the tanks into the settlement. Both have five congregational churches almost identical in construction. The church plays a most important part in the life of the community. Under the Cook Islands Act 1943 laid down the forms of the process as well as the public law of the territory, the church ruled the coast alone. The process measures not only very quickly converted the natives to Christianity, but also obtained control over the native chiefs and virtually denied the Government.

Reverend Gurnshaw wrote in 1908 "The Protestant Missionaries, with the best intentions in the world, carried things drastically too far in the way of grandmotherly laws. Even white men were forbidden to be out of doors after eight o'clock at night, on pain of a heavy fine, and the offences for which the natives were fined would be incredible were they not recorded in official reports."

In those days, and up to as recently as twenty-five years ago, a native who walked at dusk along the road with his sword-belt, was obliged to carry a burning torch in his hand, and he was fined if he let it go out. The "dim laws" as they were known are not yet entirely gone—they have been only modified—but an constitutional government was introduced the night prior which the missionary government had over the natives was relaxed. Of missionary rules still enforced today one may cite that there is for instance, a curfew at nine o'clock at which time a local gong is struck, an exception being made on duty nights. Cycling is not allowed on Sundays, and cloths must be worn on that day.

The island surface is largely composed of coral sand and rubble. Coconut palms thrive, but the range of other food crops is small. Fish are plentiful, made the lagoon a wide variety of edible small fish may be named yet the natives prefer to live out of fish. This is a result of increased mortality rates from pearl shell during recent years, and both general and dental health have suffered. Pearl shell provides the most important industry during operations taking place in the deep water in the lagoon. The shell is sold to a New Zealand trading firm, or burned for chalk, or with an American firm which has recently started trading with the island.

The Cook Islands are singularly free from true tropical diseases, the only significant ones being yaws, leishmaniasis, intestinal infestations, and leprosy tuberculosis is the greatest single fatal disease. A main maritime radiography

and his own accustomed optimism, and BCG vaccination is being carried out in conjunction with the survey on all Mammee-negative individuals. Posters are widely displayed, including an interesting one illustrating the value of the coconut as a carbohydrate spiritus link!

All Major patients receive free medical and surgical treatment. Penikese has a resident Polynesian doctor and a small hospital (see book). All serious cases are evacuated to Rororonga where there is a general hospital with a maximum of fifty-seven beds, including a five-bed air-ferri unit, with dispensary and limited X-ray and laboratory facilities. There is also a Sanatorium with a maximum capacity of sixty-seven.

In conjunction with the operation a land-based Air Force detachment had been set up on the main island at Penikese which was responsible for the maintenance of the airfield and weather station. There was a small M.I. room staffed by a R.A.F. medical orderly. There was also a Dacca station, staffed by civilians, which provided transportation and for weather ships in the vicinity. Alongside the R.A.F. group was an American camp set up in containers with the Geophysical Year. The Americans mixed freely with our men, and appeared on the front of terms.

The Resident Agent, a Polynesian, David Motuarua, lived in a fine house overlooking the lagoon. A liaison officer for Operation "Grapple" by name Mr. Donald Reid shared the roadway with the Resident Agent. It is largely to Mr. Reid that the happy atmosphere and the enjoyable time experienced by all who visited the island can be attributed.

As a result of a mishap to the aircraft in which I landed at Penikese it became clear that I was there for the night instead of the two hours originally planned. Mr. Reid kindly offered to put me up, and subsequently extended to me, as he has to so many others, the most generous hospitality.

It is possible to walk round the main island of Penikese in a matter of a quarter of an hour—possible that if you meet the almost irresistible overtones of its inhabitants to come inside their houses and spread their grass skirts and mats. They are a most charming and happy people, the girls always smiling and attractive, the men polite and courteous. Their houses are most beautifully kept, although they contain enormous quantities of people. At least three generations appear to live in each tiny house. The most striking thing to me was the way in which the wife ruled the roost. They seem to have progressed further along this path than even English ladies. Every bargaining transaction had to be submitted for approval, and was almost invariably turned down, and a more profitable bargain sought. Thus, at times seemed to drive the husband as well as me into a state of frenzy. There was no object to these people and hence bargains were difficult to strike. On the other hand they are such kindly people that they would think nothing of giving away something for which a few days previously they had obtained a considerable offer. This applied in particular to pearls, for which they might ask ridiculous prices and yet a few days later give away

My evening at Pearley's was particularly enjoyable. After dinner, my host invited me to sit out in the verandah overlooking the lagoon, and throughout the evening a succession of guests dropped in for the odd cognac and a chat.

It was only a couple of steps from the verandah to the edge of the lagoon, and so I had to step without a net, the mosquitoes did not find it a difficult job to make life so unpleasant for me that I took the unusual course of keeping out of bed at half past five in the morning and plunging into the lagoon. And very delightful it was. Soon after dawn, H.M.N.Z.S. *Albatross* arrived off the coast.

The day was the 25th May—Ascension Day, and Mr. Reed was anxious to make as big a show of it as possible for the natives who had never before seen the ceremony. But none of these things were for me, for no sooner had *Albatross* dropped her hook close to the Kermadecy than the ruled *Shackleton* that had first arrived an hour or so previously was ready to depart.

#### THE FLEET DEPARTS

And now the time was drawing nigh for the first 'drop'. All the rehearsals except the final one had been completed. On the 7th May, *Wheeler* sailed for Maitia. At later dates H.M.N.Z. Ships *Rangatira* and *Pukekohe* which were acting as weather ships took up their respective positions and H.M. Ships *Alert*, *Coral*, and *Mitoko* sailed for the Forward area. H.M.S. *Narvik* was already in the vicinity of Maitia. On 11th May the final rehearsal took place.

There was much speculation as to whether we would have any un welcome visitors. We had read in the *Star Pargue News* towards the end of March, and subsequently in the London dailies, that a London couple, Mr. and Mrs. David Steel had stated that they were determined to get onto the danger zone off-shore the threatened Japanese attack fleet. Mr. Steel told reporters that he hoped they would not be killed, but that they would be injured or even condemn him to show the world how horrible conditions were over. The Times of 2nd May stated 'Much attention has been attracted by two young British pacifists Mr. David Graham, aged 21 and Mr. Ian Dixon, 21 now widely known as 'the British Satyagrahis' who have appealed in Delhi for funds to enable them to go to the Christmas Island area and stir the conscience of their countrymen by exposing their bodies to the deadly effects of nuclear radiation. The Japanese authorities have offered them even only on condition that they do not expose themselves to any such danger. They now propose to travel by way of Fiji.'

14th May was D-1, and throughout that day thousands and numbers of the three barrows were sighted from Maitia Island and embarked on *Wheeler* (forward control ship), *Narvik* (weather ship), and *Mitoko*. During the evening V.I.P.s arrived by air from 'Christmas,' and were taken aboard *Alert* (afternoon flight). Amongst them were representatives from Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States.

Meanwhile at Christmas Island, the preparations had been going ahead. The ground crew of the *Valiant* R.I. together with the scientific teams had begun the comprehensive preparations for bombing-up. Shackletons and Conquerors

had taken off on weather reconnaissance, with the added duty for the Sea Kings of searching to ensure that the danger areas were free from shipping. The Gilbertian villagers had been evacuated to Tassell Island about the R.F.A. *Fort Abner*.

At 0800 on the 13th May the Task Force Commander confirmed that the situation was favourable for D-Day, before taking off for Midway where he was to make a final decision from H.M.S. *Narvik*.

Meanwhile the ships moved to their appointed positions. At 1000 aboard *Warrior* the hands were paid to divisions on the flight deck, and subsequently staggered to ensure that they were properly served. The rig consisted of



Fig. 8.

No. 8's smallish hood and face mask, with flash goggles, with flash gloves and the badge. Officers wore the same rig excepting that a white combination overall suit and shoulder straps was substituted for the No. 8's. Following final inspection the hands were dispersed to stations for witnessing the burst. By now the vapour trail of the Valiant could be seen, and behind it that of a second Valiant, acting as a 'grandstand'. Piloted by Wing Commander K. G. Stelfox, O.B.E., D.F.C., the leading Valiant passed overhead on her



metal ran over the target. Two dark chimney runs were visible too, and as the wheeled round for the third time we knew that all being well, this was it. As the passed overhead I noticed that not more than about one-third of the ship's company looked up, there was a feeling of nervousness amongst us all—a feeling of awaiting the unknown which is hard to describe—perhaps a feeling of "I hope to hell we don't drop the thing now." Already we were seated on the flight deck with our backs to the target, our goggles on, our eyes closed and our hands over our goggles. From the bridge a maddeningly slow whistle (John Stanger of the B B C) in his ability to describe the confusion told us first the number of minutes and later the number of seconds prior to the expected release of the weapon. Subsequently after the message "Launch gone" had been received, a count down was given to the expected time of the burst. "Five, four, three, two, one, NOW" cried the commentator, and at that very moment



Fig. 8.

we felt a momentary wave of warmth on the nape of the neck, yet saw nothing. The deadly threat previously pervading us the flight deck was broken for a second or two by low murmurs, but silence again ensued as the count up approached the point at which we could look round. "Now see. Answer

your goggles. Turn round and look at the *POBEE* and the commotion. The last few words were almost shouted. The time was 10:10. As my goggles came off and I opened my eyes, the heavens were momentarily so brilliant with the dying flash that I wondered whether an eclipse was yet safe to turn round. The effect was, however, undoubtedly accentuated by virtue of the fact that our eyes had been closed for a minute or so before. On turning round the fire look, by this stage about as bright as the sun, could not be seen, seemed high above the sea and rising rapidly. Our eyes were now turned to the left where we were gratified to see the vapour track of the two *Vikings*, safe and sound fleeing from the scene of the gigantic explosion.



*My version of Japanese Ensigns at the explosion.*

FIG. 7.—The flash and E., 19th May 1937.

And now the fire ball was being rapidly replaced by the familiar mushroom whose stalk grew as the cloud soared upwards. About this time too the sound of the explosion, like that of distant gunfire, reached our ears. Within the heart of the mushroom there was now to be seen a patch coloured grey as of a fungus-based water. This was caused mainly by the release of particles of nitrogen and was also partly due to the fact that the cloud is really like a dough-

not like circular ripples), and thus less dense in the middle than at the periphery. This became more apparent later on—when we penetrated the tropopause: the cloud flattened off into a round disc, and subsequently formed a halo, occupying a large proportion of the sky, still present at sunset, while long after the storm had passed over drunkenly and disappeared. We look back for a moment to the initial scene: as the sides of the mushroom grew we saw an inverted cone of cumulus cloud forming beneath it (due to condensation following the rush of air into the vacuum created by the explosion), and below this a disturbance on the surface due to dust being blown about (not picked up—as it was a high air burst at Midway). As the whole subsided, it gave the appearance of an expanding giant anemone cloud of pre-war vintage. Meanwhile above the mushroom appeared a mass of "sawtooth" a term which I find is self-explanatory in a photograph believed to be due to shock waves.

After the bomb—and in particular when it became apparent that initial investigations showed that the test had gone off according to plan, the feeling of tension eased. Although a few were frankly disappointed in what they had seen, the majority considered it an unforgettable spectacle. Most of those who were disappointed began to realize what a tremendous weapon this is. When they suddenly supply the rest of the cloud must have been. Some from many miles the darkness of such a cloud can be very deceptive.

I have been asked how this spectacle compared with that at Monte Bello when our first atomic bomb was detonated. At Midway it was the second on the back of our necks, rather than the first, that told us that the explosion had taken place, but at Monte Bello we did not wear anti-flash goggles. The explosion was far more colossal: we saw the fire-ball, and the orange glow already described; the former had already died by the time we looked round at Monte Bello and the latter was never apparent. The shape of the cloud was rapidly distorted as the first test, because of the prevailing wind: here we witnessed the perfect mushroom in all its glory. As regards size, it is difficult to hazard a guess because the clouds were seen from different distances, but this was clearly several times larger. The "loop" here was less intense—almost disappearing—but this was a high air burst seen from a considerably greater distance. It is, however, of interest to note that the "bang" was clearly heard at Christmas Island—400 miles away at 1117.

Throughout D-Day and D+1 the work of collecting samples went ahead. During this phase our Ship's Flight played a most important part, making numerous trips to Midway—where scientists measured the installations and collected records. Fish were caught and subjected to careful examination not only on the last ten succeeding days, and from over vast areas (including a 12 ft. long 360 pound black marlin off Christmas), proving beyond any shadow of doubt that our concerns were correct in forecasting that no contamination to them would occur.

For obvious reasons I have had little to say about the scientists and the scientific side of the operation. We saw experimental and felt exactly what they foretold, and in their mind go much credit. © R. J. Cook, C. R., M. Jr., the

Scientific Director, has been connected with the Services since the early days of the last war. From September 1944 until September 1954 he worked at the Admiralty, first as Director of Physical Research and later as Chief of the Royal Naval Scientific Service. In September 1954 he joined Sir William Peary to work on the H-bomb.

Our task completed, we sailed for 'Cheesman' on the evening of 15th May. It proved an eventful voyage. Early on the 16th, whilst still some distance from 'Christmas' a light was seen flashing in the distance. The message proved difficult to read but it soon became clear that it said "Eyes Japanese Search Team Go Home If Fear". Immediately a flash signal was sent to the Task Force Commander—*Have received following signal from unidentified vessel, viz. Am closing for Japan; further instructions. Shortly after a further signal came from the vessel—"Go home under"—*and at the same time through the darkness the dim outline of a boat could be discerned, flying a large Japanese flag and with long poles hanging out over the side (as is the custom in Japanese fishing boats). There could now be little doubt and we closed at speed. These two things happened: First the following signal was received from 'Christmas'—*Two signals vessel perfectly, but do not go home.* Secondly, it became apparent that the vessel was quite unlike that I would expect from anyone manned by a crew from the Port Camp. We were told 'look! here and there'. To make matters doubly worse, as the cutter approached us we were hailed. *How now from Tokyo for us?* Being slightly alarmed however we pushed on. As a result on our arrival at 'Christmas,' the L.C.M.'s brought out potatoes and lettuce but no meat, and we had to wait till noon before the 'fishing boat' returned. There seems little doubt that our Commanders—who had flown to 'Christmas' the day we left Malden—had had a hand in this affair.

The few days' wait at 'Christmas' were much appreciated. At the same time preparations went ahead for the next 'drop'. At this time too we had farewell to H.M.S. Clark, which sailed for Fiji to commence her survey work.

#### THE QUARTERMASTER AND YACHTS, CHRISTMAS

We sailed again for Malden and the second 'drop' on 21st May. Shortly after our arrival on the 27th we were joined by Lt. Col. P. K. Gosses, R.S.O., and Commander S. P. Brown who had flown up from Fiji. The former is the co-Commanding Officer of the Fijian Infantry Regiment, and in addition, a Permanent Chief of Fij, and of Royal Blood. Commander Brown is the Commanding Officer of the Fijian Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve, and is held in the highest esteem by our Fijian ratings. A Fijian Scientist's Guard was formed and inspected by the Colonel.

During the evening, conversations took place which I was privileged to attend, and which I feel are worthy of recording in some detail. It will be recalled that when the Magaya visited Fiji a few years ago she was presented with a Tabor (Whale's Tooth) by a Permanent Chief before going ashore from the Galleon. This presentation (the Galleon's courtesy), at the highest honour which a Fijian can bestow on a distinguished personage. To commemorate the

across our Fijian ratings arranged to present such a tooth to their Chief. As our Comandante was also regarded as a Chief, as so far as he represents His Majesty, he could not be allowed to attend, but with reluctance he consented to other role. Hence invitations were extended only to the heads of these departments in which the ratings served.

After dinner, led by the Colonel we made our way to the Fijian room where we found them solemnly squatting at the forward end of the open dining room of chairs which had been provided for us. The Chief took his seat in the center chair, and on his right sat the Comandante. A young Fijian stepped forward and squatted just in front and to the right of his Chief. He was the *Mata Ni Vunani* (Son of the Hawk), the personal servant and spokesman for the Chief. The entire ceremony was conducted in Fijian. First the senior Petty Officer arose and gave a short speech of welcome to his Chief, at the same time handing him the whale's tooth in which was attached a small ornamental silver garland. The purpose of this garland is not to attach the talismen around the neck, as might be expected, but to ornament and to assist with the manner in which the gift is laid upon the hand and forearm of the recipient. The donor speaking and pointing for the use of the words and that it was a very small one. The speech follows a rigidly formal pattern and is practically the same whenever the ceremony is performed. The Chief accepted the gift and thanked the Fijian for their kindness and loyalty in remembering their Chiefs. He promised to convey my messages for them to their families in Fiji. He then handed the tooth to the Mata Ni Vunani, who made a formal acceptance on behalf of the Chief, and added that as this it was a very large tooth.

Now began the *lagan* (Araw) Ceremony. *Yagwa* is the national beverage of Fiji. It is made from the roots of the *Yagwa* tree. The Fijians abstain not to go through a similar but rather more informal ceremony each night, when they consumed this refreshment in lieu of a meal. The substance is said to have medicinal properties (antiseptic-antidysentery). If consumed in excess one's urine turns green and one feels "weak on one's feet," but I understood it has no alcoholic content, containing only resin, glycerol and methylolates. I will relieve the reader's anxiety at once by recording that no untoward symptoms were reported to me later on by any of the guests. I am told that in Fiji in the absence of gardens, much the richer consume *Yagwa* and hence for the best. For the present, it is probably excellent treatment.

The mixing of the drink is a complicated process. In Fiji an entire boat is sponsored and presented to the Chief, while the drink itself is mixed from powdered root previously prepared. Here, the first part of the ceremony was omitted for obvious reasons. Behind a large bowl squatted P. S. B. A. Krie, almost paralyzed with the thought of the huge responsibility that lay ahead, for he was none other than the chief mixer (son) of the *Yagwa*. On his right sat the "water adder" (*idawavani*) armed with a huge bottle of water. In Fiji a hollow bamboo cane is used for this purpose. On his left sat a third rating designated to see fair play. These three are collectively known as the *Qaravayavani*. Behind them sat the rest of the company watching the proceedings in deadly silence. First the powdered root was placed on the bottom of the bowl,

then water was added. Meanwhile the *Mata Ni Vavani* danced, on behalf of the Chief, when more water should be added and how much stirring should be done. Thus the mixture was stirred with straddled legs on back until work done on the Chief appeared through his spectacles that it was ready for consumption. A bowl previously stretched out straight in front of the bowl was now curled up to signify the conclusion of this stage. The first bowl of *Yagone* is given to the wife of the Chief. Thus the Chief was now handed a second bowl (shale), and this was filled with the liquid. The assembled natives now clapped three times, and the Chief drank the lot in one. The senior Petty Officer now cried, "A *Mofo*" which means "absolut" or "He's drunk the lot." Following this, everyone clapped again three times. The *Mata Ni Vavani* is always the first person to receive the cup, this is known as the *valve ni yagone*. Even when Her Majesty visited Fiji, I understood, it was this man's turn before that of Prince Philip. Three more sips, of the Chief's party now received *Yagone* in each case followed by a cup being passed to a *Mata Ni Vavani* appointed to the particular person and who sat in the crowd. This ended the formal part of the ceremony. After that we all had a gin wash following a rather low road round. I cannot say that the taste was at all agreeable, but it is probably something that grows on you, like beer, however, we all managed to keep it down and maintain our dignity.

Then the Chief made a special speech (*vakalavanaga*), in which he spoke earnestly and fluently to his people. He told them that before he left Fiji he had been sent for both by the Governor, the District Commissioner and the Fijian Affairs Board and that they had asked him to offer special congratulations for the hard work they had been told had been undertaken by the Fijians aboard *Warrior*. Then he told them what a unique experience it was for them to work under the British who were the greatest fighters in the world, and asked them to carry on as they had already done, pointing out that just one more crossing would make being *dokomau* on them all. Then getting up, he addressed the visitors in English. Explaining that the presentation of the whole's tooth was the highest honour that a Fijian could bestow, he added that it could have even greater significance. Pointing to the Petty Officer he said and laughed "If I offered this tooth to the Petty Officer and told him to tell the Commander, 'would be as good as gone.' He would say acceptance of the tooth meant that you were prepared to carry out a wish. One could either accept the tooth and carry out the wish, return it to the donor, or hand it to someone else, who, if he accepted it, would have to carry out the wish. We were told long that the last crossing by this method took place in Fiji over twenty years ago.

After the Chief had concluded, the senior Fijian sang for us and expressed thanks, and in this way the ceremony ended. It had been a most interesting evening sharing and experiencing the ancient customs of these most loyal, cheerful and hard-working people.

*(To be continued)*

## NELSON AND THE SURGEONS

BY

MISS J. DOBSON

The Court of Examiners of the Royal College of Surgeons of England has an interesting history. It was in 1540 during the reign of Henry VIII that the Barbers and the Surgeons of London were united by Act of Parliament to form the Company of Barber Surgeons. Fifteen years later, regulations were drawn up providing for the appointment of thirteen examiners, including the Master of the Company, to approve the ability of those persons desiring the Company's licence to practise. In 1629 these regulations were made even stricter by a Charter granted by Charles I which stated that no one was to practise surgery in London or within seven miles of it except members of the College of Physicians, unless examined and approved by the Examiners of the Company, and every person so approved might practise surgery anywhere in England. The Court of Examiners then established consisted of ten Fellows of the Company and they also had the duty of examining surgeons and surgeons' assistants for the Royal Navy and Merchant Service and of inspecting their students in and medicine clinics. Now! surgeons paid no fee but were required to make a contribution to the poor box, if their names permitted. The Court, in effect, controlled the policy of the Company and the office of Examiners, therefore, was a most honourable and lucrative one.

After separation from the Barbers in 1792 the Surgeons built their headquarters to the east of the Old Bailey, the first meeting being held in the new Hall on the 1st August, 1791. In 1798 the Company was directed by the Commissioners for Sick and Hurt Service to examine naval personnel for purposes of superannuation or compensation for wounds, to estimate the degree of the disability and approve the amount of expenses incurred in treatment. The barbers of such wounds to Surgeons' Hall varied considerably over the years depending for the most part on the degree of integrity of anatomical dissection. Up to the year 1794, most of the cases dealt with were applications for superannuation, but with the outbreak of hostilities against the French, a constant stream of wounded sailors presented themselves for examination. So many were there in fact that the Court of Examiners, who performed this function, on occasion met every two weeks instead of every month as was the custom. It was just at this period that the location of the building near the Old Bailey was causing anxiety and the Company therefore decided to seek new accommodation. This they found in Lincoln's Inn Fields where number 44 on the south side was purchased in October 1796. The first building on this site, built about 1642, became known as Cockspur House owing to the fact that it served as the town residence of the Earl of Cockspur. The premises purchased by the Company, however, had

been erected about seventy years previously and from 1758 until 1788 (that was the home of the Earl of Northampton, then Lord Chancellor).

The first meetings of the Company were held in this house: on 30th January 1797, and it was here that "Rear-Admiral Sir Horatio Nelson, K.R." was examined by the members of the Court of Examiners on his first visit on 12th October 1797 (fig. 1). His intention was to gain the opinion of the Surgeons about the injury to his eye sustained three years previously on 12th July, 1794, at the siege of Calvi on Corsica.

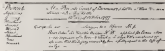


FIG. 1.

The events leading up to this incident were complex. For some years, the state of affairs in France had been a source of concern to other countries, who, for a time, remained neutral but watchful. After the execution of Louis XVI on 21st January, 1793, the revolutionaries were forced to defend to all their neighbours. The King's death caused popular opinion in England to go deeper and further; more the perceived extension of Belgium was a possible danger. The National Convention, now the ruling body in France, made the first step, however, and declared war against Great Britain on February 19th. Other European countries quickly joined this country to form a coalition against the republic, and so it happened that in June 1794 Nelson sailed on the appointment to the Mediterranean station. In the following month, at Calvi, an enemy shot struck a battery house first, throwing up splinters and stones which bounced and cut his leg, significantly wounding the right eye.

The conflict noted by the doctors attending him at Calvi states that "Horatio Nelson, Esquire, Commander of His Majesty's ship *Agamemnon* did receive a wound of the eye of the right eye, which has occasioned an internal distention of the pupil and a material defect of sight." The document is signed by John Hume, then Physician to the Fleet, and by Michael Jefferson, who designates himself as "Surgeon attending on board." It is noted that Jefferson was only qualified to act as second medical officer, having been approved as such at Surgeon's Hall on 10th April 1791. Nelson was able to perform some of his duties even on the day of his injury and on the next day was at his post as usual, but by the time that he presented himself before the Court of Examiners on 12th October, 1797, he had completely lost the sight of this eye. James Rennie, in his



delightful book "Islands and Eyeballs," published in 1833, gives her opinion that 'the consecutive weakness of the blood upon the side of the head and feet produced detachment of the retina.'<sup>1</sup> If the eyeball had been damaged severely enough to cause something less of sight, it would have recuperated from her longer than a few hours, as well as having some months ago. Nelson himself says, however, in a letter to his wife that 'the blindness is nothing, not to be perceived, unless told.'<sup>2</sup>

During the three years that elapsed between the injury to his eye and his first visit to the Company of Surgeons, Nelson did not return to this country, and during that time he was wounded twice more. At the Battle of Cape St Vincent, on 14th February, 1797, he was struck on the left side of the abdomen a wound of moderate severity, the consequences of which he felt for the rest of his life. The second injury was sustained during the attack on Teneriffe on the night of 24-25th July of the same year.

The expedition against France soon lost its cohesion, partly because of the changing colours of the French troops, and several of the members, including Spain, declared it just to no make repairs to terms with the enemy. The victory over the Spanish fleet off Cape St Vincent was, therefore, a very heartening event, and when, some afterwards, it was announced that a Spanish treasure ship had got into the harbour of Santa Cruz it was decided to put the success to practical use and make an attempt to seize this prize. A small squadron, consisting of four ships of the line, three frigates and a cutter, with Nelson as command, set sail on 15th July for Teneriffe.

But the expedition was unsuccessful. British casualties included wounded and drowned, amounted to two hundred and fifty. Nelson himself was one of the first to fall for, as he stepped on shore at the head of the attacking force, he received a musket-shot through the right elbow. This might have proved fatal had not his physician, Lieutenant Denis Noble, had the presence of mind to tie a handkerchief round the arm above the lacerated wound. The *Achilles*, in command of Captain Thomas Fremantle Fremantle, was the nearest vessel but Nelson insisted on being taken to his flagship *Thames* lest Mrs. Fremantle should be alarmed by his appearance. Such an heroic amputation by the circular method, through the middle third of the arm, was at once performed. There was, no anaesthetic and the operation consisted of a few speedy cuts with the respirating knife, tying of the vessels and stitching up.

In the *Thames* were two surgeons, Thomas Edriley and Louis Remowser. The latter was a French Royalist refugee, then aged 24, who had been a surgeon at Toulon Hospital and had been granted permission to serve on the Royal Navy where his rank was that of surgeon's mate. The other was George Henderson, of Airth, in Scotland, was killed during the attack. Many of Nelson's biographers have assumed that Remowser performed the amputation, though the reason for this is not very clear. The Admiralty records show that Edriley was the ship's surgeon and, as such, would undertake the operation, and one of Nelson's letters to Lord Keith mentions Remowser as assisting in the amputation.

Thomas Edriley was born at Thirsk in Yorkshire on 17th February 1769.

He qualified as third mate, third rate, at Surgeon's Hall on 7th April 1791 and as surgeon, fourth rate, on 4th September 1794. He joined the *Fleeson* for the expedition to Tenerife on 27th May 1797, being then 38 years old and having had several years' experience of naval surgery.

Although several writers have deduced from the circumstantial evidence that Eshelby actually did the operations, no absolute proof seems to have been available. For even Eshelby's own entries in the ship's Journal merely state that the amputation was performed and the wound after-care provided, without mentioning any names. Recently, however, among the manuscripts in the National Maritime Museum there has been found the list of expenses submitted by Nelson to the Court of Directors of the Company of Surgeons for their approval. The details of these have not previously been published in full and the document contains much other interesting information.

The first item refers to *Barrington* who received twenty-four guineas "for assisting in amputating my arm and for attendance from the 28th July, 1797, to the 31st August following during which time he sat up 34 nights". The second reads "Paid Thomas Eshelby for amputating my arm, assisting the Thomson and attending me to England in the *Sea Horse* frigate from the 25th July to 3rd September 1797". It was apparently considered worth the Eshelby himself to accompany his patient home, though it is stated that Nelson would not allow his arm to be touched during the voyage which lasted twelve days. David Fleming, who had qualified as a surgeon on 6th May 1794, had previously been in the *Sea Horse* but was transferred when Eshelby came on board for this was the only ship of the squadron returning to England. Christian Frewen's also had been severely wounded and his wife visited Eshelby in nursing the two distinguished invalids, both of whom were convalescent on their arrival at Spithead on 1st September.

These last two items on the list of expenses are of particular interest for they give evidence of the fact that medical men in the Service were permitted to make special charges for duties additional to those normally required of them. The basic pay of the naval surgeon at this period was £3 a month, together with 3d per hour per month for each member of the crew, so that these rates themselves would have been a very welcome supplement to their income.

Nelson at once went to Bath where his father and his wife were then staying. The third item on the list of expenses refers to a Mr. Nicholls there, who was paid £12 "for dressing my arm and attendance from the 3rd to 24th September". This was probably Morgan Nicholls, surgeon to Bath General Hospital, sometimes Alderman of that town and Mayor of Bristol in 1813. Two guineas was paid to Mr. Hey for medicines, and a guinea to "Dr. Foulstone for advice". This was almost certainly William Foulstone, Physician to Bath General Hospital, a Fellow of the Royal Society and eminent not only as a physician but also as a writer and writer.

But apparently Nelson was not entirely satisfied with the treatment he was receiving in Bath and after a fortnight decided to go to London for further advice. He took lodgings at 141 Bond Street and there, for thirty days, he was

attended by "Mr Crankshank" who received a pension a day. This was William Cumberbund Crankshank, the apothecary who had been William Hunter's partner at the Windmill Street School from 1774 until 1783 and who was the author of the first English authoritative work on the lymphatics. At the time of his attendance on Nelson, Crankshank was 51 years of age. His death three years later was thought to have been occasioned by an overindulgence in alcohol.

It was three weeks after his arrival in London that Nelson presented himself to the Court of Examiners at 41 Lincoln's Inn Fields. John Gunning was at that time Master of the Company and the others present were Charles Huxtable Isaac Munn, Samuel Howard, William Lucas, James Earle and Joseph Womersley who had made a special study of the eye and its diseases. This was a private Court held at an earlier hour than was usual, possibly because Nelson was still far from being in good health. The decision of the Court was that "the injury received by him is fully equal to that loss of an Eye". No claim for expenses seems to have been made on this occasion, nor was the injury to his arm mentioned. On this, his first visit to the Company of Surgeons, Nelson was apparently unaware that the apothecary for consultation had to pay a fee of a guinea, for he came without any money at all and was obliged to borrow it from the Secretary, Mr Elvey Balfour. This was repaid shortly afterwards, accompanied by a handwritten check for arrears.

No date is given on the list of expenses for what appears to have been a special consultation of three surgical experts to give their opinion about the continued pain in the amputation stump, but possibly this took place after Nelson's first visit to the Court, for James Earle was one of the three. He was the son-in-law of Percival Pott, Surgeon Extraordinary to the King and was for thirty-one years surgeon at St. Bartholomew's Hospital. The other two were Thomas Keate, Surgeon to the Prince of Wales and John Hunter's successor as Surgeon-General to the Army, and John Rush, Inspector-General of Hospitals. Keate and Earle were both Members of the Court of Assistants and later served as Masters of the Company. All three received a pension for life for the consultation, and it was possibly at this time that it was suggested that either the median or ulnar nerve had accidentally been caught up in the ligature at the time of amputation, this being the cause of the prolonged discomfort. Soon after Nelson's death, Lady Huxtable commissioned another obscure minor named Harrison to write a biography and it is on this that a statement occurs that some mistake was made "in taking up one of the arteries which is described as having been united with a nerve, by an ignorant French Surgeon". Robert Semlitz in the "Life of Nelson," further remarks that "The ligament, according to the practice of the French surgeons, was of silk, instead of waxed thread," and it is probably from these sources that the idea arose that Rensselaer was the amputator. Kneble suggests that the inclusion of a nerve in the ligament would not necessarily have occasioned pain which was probably accounted for by the continued pressure of tapes.

The last completion item on the account of expenses is of a payment of twenty-

three partners in Michael Jefferson. His attendance from the 18th Oct. after to the 13th December 1797. Jefferson therefore assumed the care of the wound when Crutskank's "Absence attendance" was completed, and it was on the very day that he proved his qualification as a naval surgeon from the Company of Surgeons. Nelson must have thought highly of this young man at this time for after he was pronounced fit for service in the middle of December and was able to dispose with a general medical attendance he arranged that Jefferson should be appointed to his ship the *Langueur* which set sail the following spring for the Mediterranean. It was Jefferson who treated Nelson when he was wounded during the battle of the Nile in August of that year, but alas that he seems to have fallen from favour. Through Nelson's influence he was appointed to the Malta Hospital but incompetence lost him this post and nothing more is known of him.

The last item on the account, for Sick Quarters, is left incomplete: no amount being entered in the column of expenses. Apart from this the total claimed was £115 1s 6d. On March 1st, 1798, Sir Horatio presented himself again before the Court of Commissioners of the Surgeons. Clamping for the purpose of substantiating this document. The document was that the amount was reasonable, and on that same day the following letter was sent to the Honorable Commissioners of the Majesty's Navy.

Gentlemen,

In pursuance of your letter of the 13th December we have examined into the claim made by Rear Admiral Sir Horatio Nelson for the expense attending the cure of his arm, and we are of opinion that the sum of £115 1s 6d the amount of such claim being for anatomical and medical expenses is reasonable and proper to be allowed.

We are therefore your most obedient humble servants,

J. Esch	C. Hawkes
Wm. Long	Jos. Warren
W. Lister	S. Howard
Wm. Cooper	G. Dinsdale

*Extract from the original document*  
 The Court of Commissioners of the Surgeons  
 do hereby certify that the sum of £115 1s 6d is a reasonable and proper sum to be allowed for the anatomical and medical expenses attending the cure of the arm of Rear Admiral Sir Horatio Nelson.  
 Given under the Great Seal of Great Britain, the 1st day of March 1798.  
 By the said Court of Commissioners of the Surgeons, in the presence of the following Gentlemen, vizt. J. Esch, C. Hawkes, Wm. Long, Jos. Warren, W. Lister, S. Howard, Wm. Cooper, G. Dinsdale.

FIG. 1

This was not quite the end of the story, however, for on 21st March Nelson himself wrote to the Commissioners for Sick and Wounded Seamen, as follows:



## General Notes and Cases

## THE INFLUENZA EPIDEMIC AND ITS CHEST COMPLICATIONS IN A LOCALIZED COMMUNITY

IN

Sergeant Commander E. C. TOSHAM, R.N.

The following description is that of the pulmonary complications which followed an epidemic of influenza in the Junior Training Establishment at H.M.S. Ganges during the month of September, 1957.

In this establishment there are approximately 1,800 Junior (formerly "boy ratings") and 600 ship's company, making a total of approximately 2,400 personnel (overall). During the period 6th September to 19th September i.e. twenty days there were 1,359 cases of epidemic influenza of the so-called "Asian flu variant". The maximum number that reported sick with the disease on any one day was 294 and the maximum total sick in bed on any day in this period was 732. As the Sick Quarters in H.M.S. Ganges only contained 156 beds the remaining number of cases were nursed in separate "Sick Messes or Dormitories" in the establishment. Naturally, as soon as any patient was suspected of having any complications whatsoever, such as pulmonary, nasal, etc., he was transferred immediately to a bed in the Sick Quarters, if not already being nursed there. The majority of the cases of influenza were those involving the Junior (i.e. 15-17 years of age), who had been accommodated in messes with approximately 45 personnel in each, but there were scattered cases amongst the officers and senior ratings living both ashore and in the establishment.

Before proceeding to the details of the chest complications of the epidemic, it is considered advisable to discuss very briefly the characteristics of the disease process itself.

In common with many epidemics which have been described in the medical journals e.g. McCreadie's report on Asian Influenza in Kuwait (1), the explosive onset of the illness was characteristic, with a classical triad of symptoms. Many ratings reported at 1700 to 2000 each day with temperatures of 102-104°, and complaining of headache, general malaise, malaise-type of cough, etc., but giving the history of having been fit and well on the morning concerned. It is considered that the symptomatology occurred in the following approximate order of frequency:

- (1) Headache: Present in all cases on the day of reporting sick.
- (2) General malaise: In nearly all cases there was pain in the back and limbs.
- (3) A dry, irritating, tickle-type of cough was also present in the majority of cases.
- (4) A course of generalized aches and pains with several peaks of temperature occurred on the third day in less than half the cases, but was quite characteristic, even without the development of any recognizable complications.

The absence of sore throat, i.e. dysphagia, was also very marked, although in Singapore reports a difficulty in swallowing had been a common symptom.

There was also a marked absence of the post-influenza depression state.

The highest temperature recorded was 102° which occurred in about half a dozen individuals and the overall average duration of stay in the Sick Quarters was five days, with two days on the "School but—light duty" before return to normal duties.

The routine treatment comprised the administration of aspirin 10 grains and rest, aspirin was 1 gr. three times a day with the addition of other drugs in certain specific cases. Antibiotics were only given in the cases with complications.

#### Complications

Although there were a few cases of acute otitis media, the chest infections provided by far the greatest number of these post-influenza complications.

Out of 1,159 cases of influenza there were 23 cases of acute pulmonary disease which developed as an immediate complication of the former illness, i.e. 1.97 per cent. Of the 23 cases 20 were patients, and the remaining two comprised one officer and one ship's company man. These 23 cases can all be considered as localized segmental types of suppurative pneumonia with or without pleural involvement with the exception of one case which was a fulminant extensive pneumonia of bronchopneumonic type. The predominant organism in this case was *Streptococcus aureus* together with smaller numbers of *Haemophilus influenzae*.

#### Clinical and Radiological

Of the 22 segmental types of pneumonia 6 were right sided, 15 left sided, and one involving both sides. This is of considerable interest when one considers the anatomy of the bronchial tree and the fact that the right main bronchus leaves the tracheal bifurcation at a less acute angle than the left.

Of the right-sided lesions, it was considered that in 5 cases the posterior basal segments were involved with pneumoniae consolidation, whereas one case was characterized radiologically by an enlargement of the right upper lobe shadow with peripheral flare and slight opacity extending into the right apertures, probably the anterior segment of the right upper lobe (figs. 1 and 2).



FIG. 1



FIG. 2

When the left-sided pneumothorax was removed, it was found that in 12 cases the basal segments of the left lower lobe were affected; whereas in 3 cases, both clinically and radiologically the lingula was involved, with radiological spaces clearly confined to the upper segment of the lingula in 2 of the 3 cases. In the bilateral cases, the posterior basal segments were involved on both sides (Figs. 3 and 4).



FIG. 3



FIG. 4

In the 22 segmental pneumothorax it was possible to detect radiological and/or clinical signs of pleural involvement in 5 cases (3 left and 2 right), with minimal pleural effusion in 3 of these cases (2 left and 1 right), and pleural involvement extending into the main oblique fissure of the lungs in 2 other cases (1 right and 1 left).

In the latter right-sided cases, the main fissure remained displaced posteriorly, with a partial degree of collapse of the right lower lobe for a considerable time, but is now slowly responding to treatment.

These cases can be tabulated as follows:



	Depth	Depth	Balance <sup>1</sup>
Upper lobe	1	6	5
Middle lobe or lingula	2	3	1
Lower lobe	5	12	7
Optimal frequency parameters all follow			
	4	12	1
	Total count = 15		
Placed, ambulatory	1	8	Total count = 9
Efficient	1	2	(2 cases, retained on the chest 11)

The case of fulminant diffuse pneumococcal consolidation was of particular interest, and at one stage the patient was undoubtedly very seriously ill, having a respiratory rate of 40-50 per minute, in association with a marked degree of cyanosis. Continuous oxygen was administered for a few days at the height of the illness, but as there appeared to be a satisfactory response to the therapy initiated before the administration of streptomycin in either decade, as has been described elsewhere in the treatment of amphiphilic pneumococci, was not considered to be indicated.

Originally the patient developed small, diffuse radiological opacities over the lower half of the left lung field, which spread rapidly to involve the right side (Fig. 5) in spite of massive dosage with penicillin (5 mega units per day).



Rights of chest

FIG. 5

During this period the patient was running a high, constant temperature. When the results of the agglutination tests were available, these revealed that the predominant organism was a *Streptococcus* species, with a few cultures of *Haemophilus influenzae*, both of which were sensitive to chlorotetracycline, and partially so to streptomycin, the latter organism to streptomycin R.

in addition. By this time both lung fields were heavily infiltrated, there being large, confluent opacities occupying the lower half of both sides and smaller scattered opacities throughout the upper parts of both lungs. In addition there was a moderately large effusion on the right side, which proved to be sterile on culture, and contained only 5 cells per c mm, all of which were lymphocytes. Blood examination revealed a leucocyte count of 21 000 W.B.C. per c mm, with 74 per cent. polymorphonuclears and 6 per cent. myelocytes. There was slow but satisfactory response to the administration of a course of chloromphenicol 2.5 grammes and erythromycin 2 grammes daily for a period of ten days. At the end of this period the patient still had a mild peak of evening temperature, and there were vague, small peribronchial opacities radiologically in the lungs. The sputum still contained small numbers of *Staph. aureus*, which were partially sensitive to penicillin. As it was not considered advisable to give further chloromphenicol, he was prescribed erythromycin 2 grammes daily for a period of nine days. In the course of time this produced a complete recovery.

Three months later the only radiological abnormality was a mild flattening and elevation of the right diaphragmatic dome, with obliteration of the costophrenic angle (Fig. 4).



Final result.

FIG. 4

During the months of the epidemic, there must have been many cases of mild acute bronchitis, following directly upon the influenza illness, but only four cases were admitted into the wards for symptomatic and antibiotic treatment. The others were treated as out-patients upon the Attending List. At this point, it must be emphasized that as this investigation was only considered as parasitology, if there were both radiological and clinical signs of acute pneumonia, consideration of these of the bronchitis cases mentioned above were probably pre-pneumonia, and there was, on occasion, a radiological flare flare or loss of translucency in one small area of the lung fields.

In addition to the above, there were also 3 cases of P.R.P.U. (Photo-radiographer Pick Up) on routine 70 mm films, in Janitors who had missed their routine chest radiological examination on account of the influenza epidemic. These 3 patients had all recovered clinically from influenza but radiological examination in each case showed a small area of opacity in the lower part of one lung field, in keeping with a small area of pneumonia consolidation. In all cases the Janitors were fit and well, and these opacities cleared with routine outpatient symptomatic treatment plus controlled breathing exercises, without any necessity arising for in-patient treatment.

#### INVESTIGATION

It was not possible to carry out routine blood and sputum examinations during the illness in all the cases of pneumonia owing to the paucity of laboratory staff, and to the fact that in all periods of the epidemic, considerable numbers of the Sick-Birth Staff were patients themselves suffering from influenza.

In the majority of cases, however, routine white blood cell counts showed a mild degree of polymorphonuclear leucocytosis, but in no case was the figure above 10,000 per c.mm. except in the atypical pneumonia, where much higher figures were reached.

Again in all the cases, except the latter above, cultures of the sputum obtained on admission of the patient to the wards, and before therapy was administered, revealed growth of normal commensal organisms of the upper respiratory tract, such as various streptococci, *Haemophilus influenzae*, *Neisseria catarrhalis*, and various types of pneumococci: most of which were usually sensitive to both sulpha drugs, penicillin and the other broad spectrum antibiotics.

#### TREATMENT

In an attempt to maximize the number of specimens to be given by the staff (greatly reduced at the wards for reasons given above and also owing to their employment as duties in the "sick rooms") it was decided to administer sulpha drugs rather than penicillin to the earlier cases. This was in addition to routine symptomatic, fluid treatment, breathing exercises and postural drainage where indicated. In 2 cases complete cure was thus obtained, but in 3 other cases penicillin was also required and this then resulted in resolution of the pneumonia consolidation. Later, 7 cases were treated successfully with penicillin alone. One patient (R.U.2. known) was given an antibiotic and the atypical pneumonia had several broad spectrum ones. Thus, in all the 31 cases given penicillin and/or sulpha drugs there was literally complete clinical and radiological resolution without the necessity for administering any further antibiotic.

Three months later the only detectable abnormalities were the presence of a mild degree of radiological "scarring or ponding" of the diaphragmatic dome in 2 cases, a minor degree of posterior displacement of the main

pulmonary lesions in the lung area with former lower lobe collapse, and the changes described above in the metaphyseal zone.

The final result of the epidemic has fortunately been very satisfactory. Although there have been isolated cases of typical influenza, and further reports with suppurative pneumonia and typical virus pneumonia, it can be stated definitely that there have been no additional cases of post-influenza pneumonia.

#### REFERENCE

- (9) McNICHAH D. W. A. *Dev. med. J.* Vol. 2, 1946, p. 434.

### AN UNUSUAL DIVING ACCIDENT

69

Sargass Commander S. MERES, R.N.

Several accidents to standard divers are fortunately rare and it is the unusual circumstances and results of this case which merits recording.

The nature of the diving accident is that of pulling a diver up and finding the helmet only coming to the surface with the diver left behind. This actually happened.

A rubber submarine lay on its side in 10 feet of water with its hatch below the horizontal. A survey was being carried out on the wreck by salvage divers, one of whom was investigating a compartment through the cargo hatch. Conditions were such that he could stand outside and work with his head and shoulders in the swagged hatch. There was evidence to show that this compartment, though flooded contained trapped air in an uppermost space and that compression of a tank had allowed oil fuel to accumulate on the surface of the water, the compressed air above which would produce ideal conditions for explosion.

The diver had called for an oxy-acetylene torch to cut away an iron ladder which was hindering his work. As a result of this an explosion occurred which was seen on the surface as a dome of gas and fuel oil and felt as a blow by ship as if a heavy metal object had been dropped on an iron deck.

Two standards on the diving boat attempted to pull the diver to the surface but all they recovered was a battered helmet surrounded by a discoloured metal sheet which was later identified as the inner face of the stowage for the escape bell (cranking fig. 1).

The body was shortly recovered, the diving suit was torn, the metal chest buckled, the left foot was missing and the iron cap and weighted sole of the right boot had been torn off (fig. 2).



FIG. 1



FIG. 2—Showing, 100 volt but still completely missing

A post-mortem examination showed multiple lacerations of the face, a laceration of the scalp, a fractured nose and a broken denture. There was no skull fracture but the injuries were consistent with the damage to the helmet. Both tympanic membranes were ruptured.

Various superficial abrasions were found on the body and limbs with rupture of the left quadriceps muscle and a comminuted fracture of the right upper tibia.

Internally there was a large retro peritoneal hemorrhage into the descending mesocolon and another toward the base of the pelvis. The rectum was intact.

An extensive subarachnoid hemorrhage was found over both cerebral hemispheres and cerebellum.

The lungs were collapsed with extensive subpleural hemorrhage. Lung tissue was normal and the trachea dry.

The most significant damage, however, occurred in the spinal column where separation involving the transverse-thoracic discs had occurred between the bodies of vertebrae C7 and T1, T1 and T4 and T14 and T15.

The pathologist concluded his report with the following statement:

"A violent hyperextension of the driver's body must have occurred causing damage to the posterior occipital area and the spinal injuries described above. It is doubtful how much of the hyperextensional damage was due to the forcible hyperextension and how much to underextension. I am inclined to think that the latter was of major importance in this case."

The first remark is entirely justified by the circumstances, for an explosive of compressed air and fuel oil would produce a relatively slow build up of pressure with no preceding shock wave as would be the case with a high explosive. The shock wave of a high explosive in water is more likely to produce multiple perforations and hemorrhages of internal vessels without necessarily the extensive tissue damage and distortion as in this case.

From the evidence of witnesses and the post mortem findings it was easy to reconstruct the accident. The driver with his legs and lower trunk outside the submarine would receive the full force of the explosion on his head and shoulders which were leaning forward onto the hatch. The explosion also going behind the main tank trunk casing would tear this away and sweep it round the driver's helmet with such force that it was indented and sprung from its seating on the corbel. The upper part of the driver's body would be forcibly hyperextended by the explosion, the pelvis and legs being out of direct range would be held back by water resistance and heavy boots. The final underextension phase as the body was sufficient to leave behind the more heavily loaded left foot but as the right came right back the upper limb torn away from the weighted side.

The case warning for its every emphasis the need for the salvage diver to appreciate the danger of possible accumulation of an explosive mixture being trapped in an old wreck, and in such cases a saving search must never be used until the danger has been eliminated.

I am very grateful to Surgeon Lieutenant-Commander R. S. Forester, R.N., for a most comprehensive post-mortem report, and to the photographer of H.M.S. *Porpoise* for the excellent pictures.

## THE MANAGEMENT OF ACUTE APPENDICITIS

BY

Surgeon Lieutenant H. L. THOMPSON, R.N.

This report is based upon 7 cases of acute appendicitis treated on board H.M.A.S. *Melbourne* during the Operational Tour of South East Asia from 17th March, 1957, to 12th July, 1957. These cases are considered to be of interest especially with regard to the poor results achieved by conservative treatment. There was a marked difference in physical signs noted between cases and one was surprised how often the state of the appendix at operation was far different from what one expected from the clinical findings. The value of per rectum examination is illustrated by the fact that in 5 cases there was definite tenderness on pressing upwards towards the right than down. In only one case was the appendix situated in the true pelvis.

All cases occurred within the period of one month from 16th April 1957. During this same period three cases of possible appendicitis were admitted to the Sick Bay for observation but these ended without treatment and, on review, I feel that they were probably mild cases of gastro-enteritis. No other cases of appendicitis, or possible appendicitis, occurred during the remainder of the cruise. It is tempting to postulate that some dietary factor was contributory.

### RESULTS OF TREATMENT

Of the 7 cases, 6 required appendicectomy and only one settled on conservative treatment. This was a relatively mild case of appendicitis. One case (No. 7) was operated upon immediately as it appeared to be extremely acute. 5 cases were treated conservatively for a period of up to three days before a decision to operate was made. Review of these cases after operation supports the decision to operate except in one case (No. 4) where the appendix was only mildly inflamed.

The results of treatment are tabulated as follows:

(a) Number of cases	7
(b) Immediate appendicectomy performed	1 (No. 7)
(c) Conservative or semi-conservative treatment	6
(d) Conservative treatment successful	1
(e) Appendicectomy required after failure of conservative treatment	5 (3 followed by H.M.H. Surgeons)

## CONSERVATIVE TREATMENT

Conservative treatment was as follows:

- (1) Bed rest—up toilet only
- (2) Two hourly temperatures and pulse chart
- (3) Restricted fluids only by mouth
- (4) Aspiracin paracetamol 1,000,000 units statim 500,000 units four hourly
- Neostigmine 1 gramme twice daily

Removal of catheters combined with two A.P.C. tablets were prescribed at night. It was not considered advisable to prescribe pethidine or morphine for fear of masking symptoms and signs.

## ANALYSIS OF PROCEDURE

In assessing the progress of these cases treated conservatively, the main emphasis was placed on the physical findings and in particular on the localization of tenderness and degree of rigidity. The temperature and pulse rate were also available. These were taken in comparison, as in some cases a rise in temperature was accompanied by a fall in pulse-rate. If both temperature and pulse rate were rising, this was considered to be an unfavorable sign.

## Case History

Case 1—K. E. P. aged 25 years, reported to the sick bay on morning of 18th April 1957 and asked a flask chart, diagnosed for some A.P.C. tablets for a headache. This was refused and he was referred to his cot. He complained of headache and hot and cold feelings during the previous four hours. It was not until 4 specifically asked how about abdominal pain that he admitted to pain in the region of the umbilicus over a smaller point of tend. There had been no vomiting or diarrhea.

Past History—No history of acute or abdominal pain.

Physical Examination—He looked ill. Temperature 100. Pulse 96. Tongue coated. Abdomen—slight tenderness and rigidity on very deep palpation in the right iliac fossa. For exam—strictly tender on pressure towards R.I.P.

Investigations—Cathartics.

Progress—By 1200 hrs temperature had risen progressively to 102 but his pulse rate had fallen to 72. There were still no marked findings on examination of the right iliac fossa. Decision to operate was made and operation was performed at 1400.

Grosses (Findings)—Appendix found at 10 cms but mobile and easily delivered into wound. Appendix was greatly inflamed but not abscessed. There was no evidence of suppuration.

Post-operative Course—Unremarkable. All dressings continued for three days.

Comments—A case of pelvic appendicitis. The decision to operate was made on the general impression of the patient, the high temperature and the very definite tenderness I.R. The fall in pulse-rate despite a rise in temperature of nearly 2 is worth noting. I feel that the decision to operate was the correct one as this case had having seen the onset of the appendix in operation 7 but that he may possibly have called the consultant too late.

Case 2—R. G. D. aged 18 years reported to the sick bay H.M.S. depot on 18th April 1957 complaining of abdominal pain of three hours duration, at first centered in the region of the umbilicus but later moving to the right of the iliac fossa. He had vomited twice.

Past History—No history of similar abdominal pain.



**Physical Examination** (By L.M.A.):—Temperature, 36° Pulse 57. Tongue coated. Breath foul. Tenderness and guarding R.I.F.

**Treatment**—Observation only.

**Progress**—Patient was transferred to H.M.A.S. Melbourne by Royal Chair at 8.00. After transfer he looked quite well but stated that pain was increasing worse. Temperature 36° Pulse 64. Tongue coated. Tenderness in the R.I.F. but only very slight rigidity. P.R.—M.A.D.

Conservative management was continued. During the day his temperature slowly began to rise and he continued to complain of pain in the R.I.F. By 1.00 his temperature was 38.0 and pulse 66. The physical signs were unchanged. A decision to operate was made and operations performed at 2.00.

**Operative Findings**—This appendix was situated on the posterior abdominal wall behind the caecum and ascending colon. The tip hung high up in front of the right kidney. Many adhesions were present around the ascending colon caecum and terminal ileum which had to be divided to allow exposure of the appendix. The appendix was severely inflamed and the tip gangrenous. Owing to the difficulty in reaching the appendix the tip was perforated during removal.

**Post-operative Course**—Unremarkable. Antibiotics were continued for five days. No signs of peritonitis developed.

**Comments**—It is interesting to compare Case 1 and 2 from the point of view of the difficulty in accessing abnormally the site of the appendix. Both cases were admitted to the sick bay at H.M.A.S. Melbourne at 8.00 on the same day. Case 1 looked very ill and his temperature rose to 38.5 by 1.00 when a decision to operate was made. Case 2 did not look particularly ill at this stage (before operations) and his temperature rose only 38.0° at 1.00 when a decision to operate was made. In neither case were there marked physical findings. At operation the appendix in Case 1 was severely inflamed but not gangrenous, but in Case 2 a very gangrenous tip of the appendix was removed which would have occurred within 1 day from

It is also worth noting the early adhesions present despite the absence of a previous history of abdominal pain.

**Case 3**—J.B. aged 18 years, reported to the sick bay on the morning of 11th April 1971 complaining of central abdominal pain of six hours duration. Onset had no preceding events.

**Past History**—Similar pain three years ago—went on alone for two days—no diagnosis made.

**Examination**—Temperature 36° Pulse 55. Tongue coated. Abdomen—tenderness and slight guarding right iliac fossa. P.R.—similar as present towards R.I.F.

**Treatment**—Observation.

**Progress**—Steady improvement in symptoms and signs over the next two days. Intermittent pain never worse than 3/10. On arrival at Singapore on 15th April 1971 he was transferred to the British Military Hospital. Tenderness and rigidity were minimal and he was considered to be settling well on conservative treatment.

The journey to R.M.S. Singapore involved a boat trip of about one mile followed by an ambulance ride of about two miles. He was transferred to a standard ward. On arrival there the findings were as follows: Temperature 36° Tenderness in the R.I.F. A rectal examination showed tenderness towards the R.I.F. A decision to operate was made immediately.

**Operative Findings**—This third find was present in the peritoneal cavity. The appendix was severely inflamed at the tip with mucosal ulceration and peritoneal staining.

**Post-operative Course**—Unremarkable. There is no record of whether or not antibiotics were continued.

**Comments**—The case appeared to be subsiding slowly on conservative treatment prior to transfer to R.M.S. Singapore but there is no doubt from the operative findings that

the condition was not progressing as well as one suggested by clinical signs. It is difficult to gauge the effect of the process but I do not think a good hard manual massage helps.

*Case 4*—D. G. T., aged 38 years, reported to the Sick Bus on the evening of 15th April, 1937, complaining of nausea for five days and pain in the right iliac fossa for three hours. There had been no vomiting or diarrhea.

*Past History*—Similar pain in the right iliac fossa for two days in January 1937.

*Examination*—Temperature 99.4 Pulse 56 Tongue coated. Abdomen—tender on the right hypochondrium and above the R.I.F. No guarding. P.R.—M.A.S.

*Treatment*—Conservative.

*Progress*—By the next morning his temperature and pulse rate were normal. Still tender but slightly less above R.I.F. The patient was discharged on 18th April when on arrival at Singapore he was transferred to the British Military Hospital. He was not advised to lie, eating, or to conserve movement.

After wounds he remained quiescent apart from occasional attacks of pain for two days. His temperature and pulse rate were progressively normal. Conservative treatment was continued. On the evening of 19th April he complained of more acute pain in the R.I.F. On physical examination there was definite tenderness on deep pressure on the R.I.F. but no guarding, and on P.R. examination definite tenderness and pain in the R.I.F. on pressure to the right. A decision on operation was made.

*Grosses's Findings*—Appendix long, with tip lying in the pelvis. Mildly inflamed.

*Post-operative Course*—Unremarkable.

*Comments*—This case demonstrates the failure of conservative treatment that a period of three days of accurate support. The condition may have settled on assumption of correct quiet treatment, but few doctors would make this decision.

*Case 5*—V. J. S., aged 35 years, reported to the Sick Bus 10 M.A.S. about an afternoon of 24th April 1937, complaining of colic and pain of five hours' duration confined to the right iliac fossa. He also complained of nausea and vomiting for the previous four days and had remained quiet on the right before reporting.

*Past History*—Intermittent attacks of pain in the right iliac fossa, not currently associated with colic, over the previous two years. He was on in patient, Plassey Naval Hospital for one week in November 1936—no diagnosis made.

*Examination* (By J. S. R.A.)—Tongue coated H.4. Pulse 72. Tongue clean. Tender, sore and guarding in the right iliac fossa.

*Treatment*—Conservative.

*Progress*—Patient was transferred to H.4 A.S. Malacca by sea boat at 1000 on 25th April. On arrival temperature 99.3 pulse 92 Tongue coated. Tenderness but little rigidity in the right iliac fossa. P.R.—M.A.S. Conservative management continued but cathartics were stopped. His temperature fell to normal on 26th April (97.4) pulse 80 and improving. He now complained that the pain was worse and no examination tenderness was more marked and localized. It was decided to operate and the operation was performed at 1000 26th April 1937.

*Grosses's Findings*—The appendix was enlarged and densely bound down by adhesions. It was acutely inflamed and diseased by thrombosis halfway along its length. Distal to the disease the appendix was distended and full of compressed feces and gas.

*Post-operative Course*—Unremarkable.

*Comments*—This appendix would have perforated had appendicectomy not been performed. By the night we were to be with three perforating abscesses and emphysema were stopped on his arrival on board H. M. A.S. of Rangoon. This afforded the conditions in which more fluid and longer a decision to operate. Waiting a couple of days of conservative treatment would have failed.



Colley (1956) has treated 131 cases of acute appendicitis of more than twenty-four hours' duration by conservative measures, with only two fatalities. In both fatal cases there were complications before arrival in hospital. Extending this policy he has treated a number of cases of acute appendicitis several weeks twenty-four hours and is satisfied that the condition can be safely and certainly dealt with in this manner. He states "One cannot help feeling that all cases of acute appendicitis occurring away from skilled surgery and adequate surgical surroundings are best treated conservatively. The unskilled surgeon will be usual a lot of anxiety and the patient have a better chance of survival."

Although our series of cases is a very small one I feel justified in drawing some conclusions from it. I am most disappointed with the results of conservative treatment and consider that all cases should be subjected to appendectomy as soon as the diagnosis is established and adequate facilities are available. It must be admitted that these 7 cases were, on the whole, more than usually acute. However, I have found that it is very difficult to judge, clinically, the state of the appendix. In these cases with very marked physical signs the appendix was often less acutely inflamed and diseased than in those cases with less marked physical signs.

The position of an is rather a difficult problem in decision as treatment will depend upon circumstances. We were fortunate in having adequate staff and theatre facilities to treat our cases surgically if necessary. I feel that whenever two or more medical officers are available a decision to operate should normally be made. The question of whether operations should be covered by an on-call or of anaphylaxis should depend upon the operative findings.

With regard to suspected or doubtful cases of appendicitis I am in favour of conservative management. I consider that in no circumstances should antibiotics be administered until a definite diagnosis of appendicitis has been established. The treatment then depends upon the facilities available.

One further point worth mentioning is the question of transfer of patients from a ship to shore and from ship to ship. This I consider should be by stretcher whenever possible. It was noted in two cases that there was an increase in temperature following the disturbance caused by unstable transfer. In one case this was from 96.2° to 99.0°, and in the other from 98° to 99°.

#### Summary

The report deals with a series of 7 cases of acute appendicitis treated on board H.M.S. *Whitburn*. In most cases conservative treatment was given a trial but failed in all but one case.

The results of treatment are analysed and the case history of each case given in detail.

The position regarding conservative treatment is discussed and it is concluded that operative treatment is preferable provided suitable facilities are available.

#### REFERENCE

Colley, E. (1956) *Brit. med. J.*, **3**, 1329.

## Reviews

**THE THEORY AND CONSTRUCTION OF BRASSWIRE ORTHODONTICS.** *Translated by* Dr C. Philip Adams B.Sc. F.D.S., D.D.S., Lecturer in Orthodontics, Queen's University, Belfast. Translated in collaboration with Tristram Harcourt, General Dentist, Fp. 128 with illustrations. Edited John Wright and Sons Ltd. Price 25s. 6d.

The revised edition of this valuable manual maintains the broad arrangement described in its predecessor, together with extra chapters dealing with expansion and settling, a number of new illustrations and a new, substantial cover. The diagrams and photographs are so well illustrated as to make the text unnecessary in many cases and to convey all necessary features merely and adequately.

The emphasis throughout is on the appliance rather than the technique of orthodontic thought and the second object is to provide a guide between its discovery *adventum* and the means of its correction. At the same time it is stated that the movement of teeth is the result of mechanical pressure, and thus, even the Andrews appliance falls into place as a logical reaction of predictable force.

In brief, therefore, the main body of the book consists of sections dealing in turn with the most required movements of teeth (into largest, mesiodistal, vertical) and so on together with a description of all the acceptable classes of method for producing them. These chapters are supported by at least dealing with mechanical principles of orthodontic appliances and the laboratory technique for their construction.

The author admits a considerable knowledge for simpler systems, which is both reassuring and wise. He does not hesitate to advise the reader that before attempting to move an amount forward, that the teeth should be considered that there is a best route for it to the arch. He continues throughout to lead the concerned orthodontist through paths that might stop an independent operator or a technique extension with orthodontic appliances.

A thoroughly useful manual, adapted to the standards but always convenient and modernized proved it is not surprising that there has been demand for a second edition.

**THE EARLY DIAGNOSIS OF THE ALVEOLAR ANOMALY.** By Dr Geoffrey Cope B.S., M.D., M.S. (London), F.R.C.S. (Edinb.). Consulting Surgeon to Mary's Hospital, Paddington, Research Fellow. Pp. 116, plus index. Coloured illustrations plus 1 picture of author's study and 26 figures. London: Oxford University Press. Price 15s. 6d. net.

This well known study has been completely revised and enlarged and emerges with its own new even further increased. It is easily read and is packed with essential information which is not often so disorganized, rather a sad experience and long study of the problems presented in some orthodontic doctor.

The figures in the text are explanatory and informative, and the photographs are suitable as explanation and reference.

The book has for long been recommended for all medical students. These will just appreciate for the information and diagnosis of some, a substantial cause for concern, namely alveolar, dental eruption and power important for their future development, could read it with profit many times over, and as the reviewer's own, it is really pleasant and help to read it after finishing his own part of the diagnosis of the alveolar anomaly.





**Endocrine Imbalances in Diseases and Treatment.** By John D. M. Watson, M.D., F.R.C.P. Assistant Physician, The Middlesex Hospital. Second Edition. Pp. 321 + 229 with illustrations. London: H. K. Lewis and Co. Ltd. Price 75s. 6d. net.

The endocrinized book has made the name Watson as its popular professor. New material includes gonadotrophin as a diuretic in oedema, oestrogen and 5-hydroxytryptamine in convulsant remedies. The chapters on metabolic diseases and the adrenal glands have also been brought up to date.

Chapter One should be looked by heart by all budding surgeons, and Chapter Nine on diseases of the liver and biliary tract is a good guide to biochemical investigations in liver disease.

The book is of extremely good value and can be highly recommended. It passes the acid test of being readable in 1962.

We acknowledge with thanks receipt of the following publications:

*Acta Medica et Biologica Alfred Hospital—Clinical Reports*, Vol. 7, 1957. *Annals Medico-Legales*. *Internist Praxis*. *Annals of Tropical Medicine and Parasitology*. *Annals Report of the Central Research Institute*. *Journal*, 1955-56. *Annals Report of the Research Institute of Environmental Medicine*. *Nagoya University*. *British Medical Bulletin*. *British Medical Journal*. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*. *Clinical Medical Journal*. *Chronicle of the World Health Organization*. *May's Hospital Gazette*. *Journal of the Royal Army Medical Corps*. *Journal of the Royal Naval Medical Service*. *Medicine*. *Medical Journal*. *Military Medicine*. *Medical Medical*. *Nagoya Journal of Medical Science*. *Proceedings of the Staff Meeting of the Mayo Clinic*. *Revue Internationale des Sciences de la Vie*. *Revue de Médecine Neuchâtel*. *Revue de Médecine Neuchâtel*. *Revue de Médecine Neuchâtel*. *Revue de Médecine Neuchâtel*. *The American Journal of Experimental Biology and Medical Science*. *The British Journal of Surgery*. *The British Medical Journal*. *The Bulletin of Tokyo Medical and Dental University*. *The German Journal of Medical Sciences*. *The Journal of the New Medical Association*. *The Japanese Medical Journal*. *The Medical Press*. *The Medical Journal of Experimental Medicine*. *The Ohio Medical Journal*. *Tropical Diseases Bulletin*. *University of Birmingham*. *With Journal Report*. *University of Durham*. *Medical Centre*. *Kolobane Medical Bulletin*.



## Notes of the Service

### OBITUARY

Surgeon Rear Admiral Samuel Gerald WELDON C.B.E. M.D. R.C.S. D.F.P. (1874-1958) died suddenly at the Royal Naval Hospital High on 185 January 1958 when, he was Medical Officer in Charge. He suffered a serious storm in 1914 which he overcame as a result of suitable therapy and sun and sea treatment, but for some time before his death he struggled heavily against pulmonary trouble. His sudden death, however, came as a great shock to his many friends.

He was born on 2nd February 1874 at Llantrisant, Co. Wexford, Eire, and was educated at St. Mary School, Corkinotland, and the University of Dublin. Trinity College. He qualified with the diploma of B.A., M.B., B.Ch., B.A.C. in 1902. His first lessons, House Physician of the Blackstone Hospital, Dublin, and in the same year took the D.F.P. of Trinity College, Dublin, and the L.M. of the Rotunda Hospital.

He joined the Royal Navy as a Surgeon Lieutenant in September 1903. He served on several of H.M. Ships, and then appeared as Clinical Professor in 1911 and was appointed to the R.N. Medical Department. This ship he had served at were H.M. Ships *Abdulloogh*, *Arcturion* and *Comet*. The circumstances in the latter ship he engaged very much in the spirit of *Wine, Women and War*. In 1914 he became Naval Medical Officer of Florida, Mediterranean Station, where he stayed for nearly three years. In 1917 he was appointed Clinical Professor at the R.N. Hospital, Malta. The war found him in one of H.M.S. *Arcturion* which was engaged in the Far East but earned much more leave time on. He became Medical Superintendent in Malta in 1921 and he worked very hard and thoroughly in his appointment not sparing himself any rest. He then broke down and had to have treatment himself for about six months. Friends and dignified determination helped greatly to win the day and he was made Naval Medical Officer of Health, Maltese Command, for the second time in 1924. In 1929 he became Naval Medical Officer of Health, Plymouth Command. This is a large Command and he worked efficiently and successfully for Imperial for physical activity. At the beginning of 1930 he was promoted Surgeon Rear Admiral and appointed Medical Officer in Charge of the R.N. Hospital, North Malta. He was then Medical Advisor to the Commander and Staff Allied Forces, Mediterranean.

He was appointed C.B.E. in 1933 and Queen's Honorary Physician in 1936. He also became an Officer of the Most Venerable Order of St. John of Jerusalem in 1931.

He is remembered by his witty, warm and a straight.

His share in a brief account of an extraordinary and varied career. He not only had been a Clinical Professor and Naval Medical Officer of Health, but also a Medical Superintendent. This shows unusual ability and versatility in professional service.

Gerry was a well liked personality and was very good natured and kind. He was very keen on his Service and was fully engaged in his work as a thoroughly and exemplary seaman, but never neglected the social side of Service life. His sense of humour was such that a stranger might think that he didn't take his work very seriously, but he would very soon and quickly be disappointed. He took more things in life seriously but his Irish wit and kindly humour were seldom far from the surface.

The funeral took place at the Chaplain's Cemetery High on Tuesday 19th January,

1944. The funeral service was held prior to the service taking up at Port St. Remy, at St. Luke's Church, Bapa. The Rev. Charles de Courton, Chaplain of R. N. Hospital, Bapa, conducted the funeral service and the graveside service which followed. The chief mourners were Mrs. William Allen, Sistera Wilkins and Subalterns J. G. M. L. Wyllie, Royal Navy. Other persons were His Excellency the Governor and Lady Legation, the Commandant-in-Chief, Mediterranean, and Lady Lambie. Flag Officers, and other senior of the Armed Forces. Fighting Services and Allied Services as well as many other Service Officers and their wives. Important and prominent in the life of Malta were also present.

The doctor sympathy is extended to his wife and family.

It is with sorrow that we record the sudden death of Surgeon Captain COLAPPE, R.N. on 24th March, 1952, while engaged on the duties of his appointment as Medical Officer in-Charge, R. N. Medical School.

Surgeon Arthur Colappe had become a name to reckon with in the R. N. Medical Service which he entered as a Surgeon Lieutenant in 1926. His career in medical school had been a brilliant one, and it soon became clear that his Service career was so much a. His career was an almost unbroken one, and he engaged himself for its pursuit by diligent and untiring study. In the interim, however, he was a member of one of the few "Franciscan" groups to be held and earned for himself the coveted rank of subaltern. During his two years he occupied a busy position as the staff of the Medical Officer General, and followed this by a spell as R. N. Medical Officer in Charge at Washington. His career in the latter's reputation was his gauge by the fact of his appointment on two occasions, prior to his removal to Malta to the United Kingdom in April, 1949.

Promoted Surgeon Captain in 1942 (December), 1949 he assumed the duties of Director of Medical Research at the R. N. Medical School and then returned to the Medical Department in June, 1950 for a further period of administrative service. From August, 1950 to January, 1952 he was S.M.O. (S) at R. N. Hospital, Chatham.

His career record as R. N. Medical Officer in Charge was a record of achievement, and appeared to be all so often and the right opportunity for demonstrating his accumulated store of knowledge and administrative wisdom. It is not given here that he was not given the time for it.

There was a unique touch with a shared analytical mind, eager to probe and to follow his symptoms of the medicine. It is seemed at times that he had shed from the surgery itself. It was perhaps because of his self-imposed high standards. His regular and working were above all standards.

Surgeon Captain F. O'HARA, R. N. (S) died on the 11th January, 1952, in the 49th year of his age on the 10th July, 1903, he qualified M.B., B.S. (Lond.) in 1925 and entered the R. N. Medical Service as a Surgeon in 1926. He was promoted to Staff Surgeon in 1929 and Surgeon-Commander in 1934 and was placed on the Retired List on the 10th July, 1935 with the rank of Surgeon Captain.

During World War I Surgeon-Commander O'Hara served in H.M. Ships *Cambridge*, *Albatross* and in the role of General Air Medical. In 1918 he was awarded The Order of the Cross of St. George.

He was employed in H.M.S. *Proctor* as Inspecting Officer of First Aid Organizations from 2nd February, 1940 till he retired on the Retired List on 27th December, 1943.

#### RESEARCH AND SERVICE

Queen's University, Belfast

Surgeon Captain R. S. Radford, F.R.C.S. (R.N.S.)

# **SENIOR OFFICERS**

Deaths in Clinical Pathology.—Sergeant Lieutenant Commander C. G. L. Hughes, R.N.  
Deaths in Industrial Health.—Sergeant Lieutenant Commander H. B. Williams, R.N.  
Deaths in Laryngology and Otolaryngology.—Sergeant Lieutenant R. E. A. Collier, R.N.  
Fellow Royal College of Surgeons.—Sergeant Lieutenant J. R. Kesteven, R.N.  
Fellow of Royal College of Surgeons.—Sergeant Lieutenant Commander (R.D.) J. Boyd, R.N.

## **PROMOTIONS**

To Surgeon Rear Admiral.—G. F. Walsh, D.S.C. (21.10) G. Phillips (21.10)  
To Surgeon Lieutenant Commander.—P. H. Lloyd (11.10)

## **TRANSFERS TO PERMANENT LIST**

Surgeon Lieutenant.—J. O. Bedford, P. C. Bedford.

## **ENTRIES FOR SHORT SERVICE COMMISSION**

J. M. Anderson, M.B., Ch.B., D.L.R., Assistant, M.B., B.Ch., M.W.B. (Surgery) B.M.,  
B.Sc., V.R. (Surg.), M.B., B.S., F.R.C. & Phys. (Surg.), B.Sc., B.V. (Surg.), M.B., B.S.,  
M.R.C.S. (Surg.), F. T. J. King, M.B., B.S., J. R. Mitchell, M.B., B.Ch., F.R.C. (Surg.),  
M.B., Ch.B., D.O. (Surg.), M.B., B.S., C. A. Brooker, B.D.S., L.D.S., J. Cuthbert,  
B.D.S., D.F.D. (Dental) Assistant, L.D.S.

## **TRANSFERS TO SHORT SERVICE COMMISSION**

Temporary Acting Surgeon Lieutenant A. J. Wainwright.

## **RETIREMENTS**

Surgeon Captain J. G. Maguire, C.B.E.  
Surgeon Commander (R.D.) G. A. C. Fotherby.  
Sergeant Lieutenant.—J. M. Dyer, J. M. Landon, F.R.C. (Surg.), C. Ward.  
Sergeant Lieutenant (R.D.) P. J. Wynn.

# **WARDMASTER OFFICERS**

## **PROMOTIONS**

To Acting Wardmaster Sub Lieutenant.—G. C. Rowland, D.S.C.P.D. (C.M.D.) 26.11.  
(1.12.50) D. R. Jones, D.S.C.P.D. (1.12.50) 22.12.50 G. Sargent, D.S.C.P.D.,  
(25.12.50) 22.12.50 J. H. T. Wilford, D.S.C.P.D. (1.12.50) 22.12.50 22.12.50

## **RETIREMENTS**

Wardmaster Sub Lieutenant S. Chase.

# **QUEEN ALEXANDRA'S ROYAL NAVAL NURSING SERVICE**

## **PROMOTIONS**

To Principal Sister.—Miss M. M. Willsoughy, J.A.R.C.  
To Superintending Sister.—Miss M. M. Aisley.

## **TRANSFERS TO PERMANENT LIST**

Senior Nursing Sister.—Miss F. J. O'Leary, Miss S. H. Wier.

**NAVAL MEDICAL COMPASSION FUND**  
**ACCOUNT OF RECEIPTS AND PAYMENTS FOR THE YEAR ENDING 31st DECEMBER, 1911**

	£	s	d		£	s	d
Balance in Bank on 31st December 1910				Amount to Matrons and Orphan			1 0 0
				Orphan Asylum			14 0 0
Dividend on 3½% Consolidated			411	Andover			1 1 0
Bank	263	0	0	Payment of £440 to 34 Bank			
Interest on 3½% Consols	66	0	0	Electricity 4½%, Guaranteed			300 0 0
Interest on 4½% Consolidated Bank	66	0	0	April 1907/99			
Interest on 3½% War Stock	23	0	0	Balance in Fund on 31st December			
Interest on 4½% Bank Electricity				1911			
Bank 1911/99	50	04	0	Deposits Account			808 7 2
Interest on 4½% Bank Electricity				Current Account			441 0 0
Bank 1911/99	62	3	3				
			400				
Refund of Interest Tax on 4½%							
Bank Electricity Bank 1911/99			1 15 1				
Interest on Deposits Account			5 4 2				
Subscriptions			244 16 0				
Donations			7 7 0				
			11 651				21 451 0 2

I certify that I have examined the above statement of Receipts and Payments and found it to be correct and in accordance with the books and records of the Fund and that all my requirements as Auditor have been met.

Certificates of the Stocks standing in the Bank of England in the names of the Trustees on 31st December 1911, and of the Payments on Current and Deposits Accounts in the National Provincial Bank Limited on that date are enclosed.

The Balance of £441 0s. 6d. on Current Account certifies the state of £411 0s. 6d. amounting to interest on account of the Officers' Fund.

Subscriptions entered during the year totalled £29 1s. 6d. in respect of arrears for previous years.

Subscriptions received on 31st December 1910, amounted to £4 4s. 6d. in respect of the year ended on that date.

Capt. Wm. C. MITCHELL,  
*Chartered Accountant,*  
*Auditor*  
 65a, Pall Mall, 1912.

In addition to the above Cash Balance Bank is the following amount now standing in the Bank of America in the Bank of England in the names of the Trustees.

£ 10,000	2½% Consolidated Stock
£ 1,000	3½% Consols Bank
£ 1,000	4½% Consolidated Bank
£ 1,000	5½% War Stock
£ 11,407 2s. 14.	4½% Bank Electricity Guaranteed Bank 1911/99
£ 1,540 5s. 14.	4½% Bank Electricity Guaranteed Bank 1911/99

\*Original Fund under Class 3 of the Order in Council of the 26th July, 1911.

Increased out of accumulated interest and subscriptions.

Capt. R. L. G. PROCTOR,  
*Surgeon Rear Admiral*  
*Secretary Treasurer*  
 11th January, 1912.

### Glutryl

**Asen Chemicals (London) Limited** announce the introduction of two new simple diagnostic tests

**"ALBUSTEST" Reagent Strips** The first colour test for urine protein. An impregnated paper stick is dipped into the urine—an immediate colour indicates a positive test and this can be compared with the colour scale as a guide to the amount of protein present. Even cloudy urines can be tested without filtration. "ALBUSTEST" is ideally suited for routine urine testing as one test only takes a few seconds.

Supplied in bottles of 60 sticks

**"OCCULTEST" Reagent Tablets** A standardized co-estimation test for occult blood in faeces. The sensitivity is of the same order as that of the Guayton test, but avoids the use of benzidine now regarded as carcinogenic. Where a more sensitive test is required "OCCULTEST" Reagent Tablets are recommended. Both tests are suitable for use in clinics and wards as well as in laboratories.

Supplied in bottles of 50 tablets









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Journal  
of the  
Royal Naval Medical Service

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Review

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CURRENT PROBLEMS IN UNDERWATER MEDICINE\*

BY

Surgeon-Commander S. MELES, R.N.

It must be emphasized that underwater medicine is not a specialty remote from other fields. It is indeed basically environmental physiology and throughout its application the same techniques, the same ideas and the same physical principles are used as in any other branch of environmental research be it clinical, climatic, aero medical or industrial. So too will achievements in underwater research contribute in some measure to progress in these other spheres.

Scientific and mechanical development in recent years has produced means which enable man to exist actively and thrust in environments which normally would not support life. In constant space travel and even under the sea, the range of activity is restricted by the physical limits of human endurance rather than the capabilities of the vehicles in which he may travel.

Diving apparatus and submarines have been developed which can take man deeper and for greater lengths of time than he himself can endure. Thus it will be seen that current problems in underwater medicine demand the study of man's response to the new environments.

In underwater medicine there are two major environments to be considered. First, that of the submarine where, though the air in the closed rooms is atmospheric pressure when submerged, it cannot be refreshed from without and equipment must be carried for production of oxygen and removal of carbon dioxide and other noxious gases. The advent of the nuclear submarine with prolonged underwater cruising will greatly magnify these problems. Lieutenant-Commander Elmdorf (1956) of the U.S.N., has recently

\*A paper read before the United Services Society of the Royal Society of Medicine on 23 June 1957.

gives a full account of this subject in the Society so I will pass directly to the second environment, that of the diver.

Whether the diver be free swimming, taking his atmosphere in bottles with him or whether he be supplied from the surface in the conventional method, the air must be supplied to him at a pressure equal to that of the surrounding water. The human body submerged behaves as an incompressible fluid its tissues taking on the equivalent pressure without deformity or conscious change. The air in the lungs is, however, compressible and therefore, for normal functioning must be supplied at greater pressure and volume. This in turn means that both nitrogen and oxygen will dissolve in the blood and pass into the tissues at greater amounts than those to which the body is adapted. It is this need to maintain pressure and flow of air which gives rise to difficulties in adaptation which may be best described under five headings. Effects due to

- (1) changes in pressure and volume,
- (2) increased air density,
- (3) increased oxygen pressure,
- (4) increased nitrogen pressure,
- (5) decompression.

#### (1) PRESSURE AND VOLUME CHANGES

As far as the lungs are concerned, so long as the pressure of the respiratory gas is kept the same as that of the surrounding tissues no harm will result. An excess may force air into the pleura or lung capillaries, a lower pressure may result in a 'squeeze'—a situation in which a diver is crushed and his helmet by water pressure. The importance of the former will be described by a subsequent speaker the latter is an important story.

Some idea of the extent of the volume changes may be appreciated by realising that so deep as 100 ft. in the sea doubles the pressure. A man who dives without apparatus with his chest in full expiration—perhaps containing 6 litres—will be in full expiration with 12 litres (the residual volume) if he swims down to 100 ft.

Many other accommodations, sometimes termed, may occur due to pressure changes of air in the middle ear or sinuses as given in the elementary tract or in the roots of various teeth.

#### (2) INCREASE IN AIR DENSITY

As air pressure is increased so will its density become proportionately greater. It is found in practice that the maximum breathing capacity of a diver is halved at 100 ft. This restriction in breathing will be considerably increased with diving, not only the individual's personal respiratory resistance, but also that of any apparatus he might be using. A breathing out with an impossible resistance at the surface may be quite unsuitable for use at depth. Careful attention must be paid to the effect of density when designing underwater breathing apparatus and assessing man's underwater efficiency. Many

uncompensated divers have been observed by the increased respiratory effort required for even moderate work.

### (2) Increased Oxygen Pressure

When pure oxygen is breathed at atmospheric pressure certain changes occur. Because more oxygen is in solution in the blood this will be used first by the tissues so that there will be less reduction of myoglobinofaen. This lowers the efficiency of the blood in removing carbon dioxide from tissues. Changes in intracellular metabolism are believed to result from excess oxygen affecting enzyme systems, e.g. the inhibition of enzymes with the sulph-hydryl group and a depression of the acetylation of choline (Haglund, 1955). Whenever the haemostatic a significant effect is seen it is a considerable reduction in the cerebral blood flow—a reduction which is not met by the excess oxygen carried. This results in a lowering of the syncope threshold (Miles, 1957). In practice it is found that conscious breathing oxygen, even at relatively shallow depths, may have consequences as a result of the summation of this reduced syncope threshold with other syncope promoting factors such as anxiety, hyperventilation, increased intrapulmonary pressure, alveolar hypoxemia, fatigue and alkalosis. This is the underlying mechanism of a condition which has been called in the diving world, "Shallow Water blackout" and which has a parallel in the "near-syncope" of anesthetic induction. The term "oxygen syncope" has been suggested to describe the condition in divers and because of the risk which is greater in unaccompanied men the Navy is developing an air breathing set to replace the oxygen one for training and general use, restricting the use of the closed circuit oxygen set to operational circumstances where it is essential that no time detection or bubbles are produced.

Furthermore, if pure oxygen is breathed at pressure more than twice that of the atmosphere, e.g. at depths of 10 ft. or more convulsions may occur, the clinical sign of oxygen poisoning (Derrick, 1947). The convulsions are epileptiform and may be preceded in some cases when a threshold is met by lip twitching. The convulsions in the manifestation of oxygen poisoning but it is essential to ensure that before the dramatic event occurs some changes in the cerebral screen system must be taking place. To find out what these changes are it is a major requirement for the underwater physiologist. Is oxygen syncope a mild form of oxygen poisoning and is the final convulsion due to anoxia or retention of carbon dioxide? There is perhaps a clue to this in the "oxygen paradox" where giving oxygen to an individual who is nearly unconscious with anoxia may produce temporary loss of consciousness. On the other hand oxygen syncope and oxygen convulsions may be compared with pure nit and pure nit.

If a study of partial pressures is made it will be seen that breathing air at a depth of 20 ft. produces the same oxygen pressure as pure oxygen at 11 ft. Thus at this depth or deeper there would be a risk of oxygen poisoning

weight breathing air, a fact which would in itself make it dangerous to use air for diving at such depths.

Much more work is needed before the mechanism of oxygen poisoning is understood but recent work has shown a similarity between oxygen poisoning and X-irradiation in that both produce in the tissues, including the retinae, in clinical practice high pressure oxygen is used to intensify the effectiveness of irradiation in the treatment of cancer.

Oxygen too has a thrombotic effect. Animals breathing pure oxygen in atmospheric pressure only die in about ten days from pulmonary infarction and perivascular and subarachnoid bleeding oxygen for prolonged periods have developed a severe leukoarteriosclerosis.

#### (4) INCREASED NITROGEN PRESSURE

When an under pressure is boosted the partial pressure of its nitrogen will be correspondingly greater and when excess nitrogen diffuses into the tissues it produces a narcotic effect which at a depth of 300 ft. may render an individual incapable of accurate thought and action. With training however an experienced diver may do useful work at 300 ft. A similar condition may be produced by breathing 20 per cent nitrogen oxide in the surface. The effect of nitrogen can be shown in shock alpha-rhythm blocking in the ECG record and vary the threshold of tissues of a flickering light. It becomes apparent that though gross effects are rarely seen at depths less than 150 ft. changes are taking place even at shallower depths. There is some evidence that even at atmospheric pressure the ambient nitrogen has some blurring effect on the C.N.S., for as observed by breathing oxygen or argon-helium mixtures or reducing nitrogen pressure by the acetylene mask does in some cases produce exhilaration and increased acuity. This is at present largely speculative but it is an interesting conception that nitrogen, far from being an inert gas may play a part in damping C.N.S. activity. Further work is being planned on this rather unusual idea of the "nitrogen blanket".

#### (5) DECOMPRESSION

Having established that a diver may breathe air with comparative safety down to a depth of 300 ft. this is not the end of the story. At the increased pressures both oxygen and nitrogen will dissolve in excess in the blood. The oxygen will be metabolized but the nitrogen will diffuse from the blood into the tissues. The important point is that the excess gas passes into the body through the lung alveoli during the pressure increase. If pressure is suddenly released the change will be felt throughout the tissues and if the deep re pressure is great enough bubbles will form in both blood and tissues producing what is called "Decompression Sickness". The symptoms of this may be redness, itching, painful joints, floods, pulmonary irritation or cerebrospinal involvement according to the degree of bubble formation. Fat cells may be ruptured producing lipemia and cases have been reported in which more of fat emboli passing through a patent foramen ovale to lodge in the brain.

Decompression sickness is by no means confined to divers. It occurs quite commonly in men working under pressure in the coal mines of modern mines and is a well-known hazard for aviators subject to explosive decompression.

The only way in which the condition may be avoided is to ensure that the decompression is so slow that the excess nitrogen can be given off from the lungs before bubbles form. Though ideally a diver would be brought up to the surface very gradually it is convenient and effective to bring him up in steps of 10 ft. allowing him to rest appropriately at the various stages.

The adverse effects of toxicity, oxygen, nitrogen and decompression sickness which have been outlined have not prevented a diver reaching a depth of 600 ft. and perhaps the most interesting way of showing how the difficulties may be overcome would be to describe how in 1956 Lieutenant Wootley, a naval diver, established the world record dive of 600 ft. off Norway. At this depth he was able to do useful work for five minutes. Had he been breathing air nitrogen would have rendered him unconscious. If this could be prevented oxygen poisoning could still occur and even if this too could be prevented the increased air density would make breathing very difficult and work impossible. The dangers of long decompression still remained. What was done?

Firstly, the diver descended to 40 ft. breathing air. Here the air was replaced by a mixture of 5 per cent oxygen in helium. At this depth it will be found that 5 per cent oxygen exerts the same partial pressure as 21 per cent oxygen (say air) at the surface. Also 5 per cent oxygen at 600 ft. has a partial pressure less than threshold for oxygen poisoning. Thus the risk of oxygen poisoning is removed. As the time taken helium has not the narcotic properties of nitrogen and can be breathed with safety at this depth. Finally because the atomic weight of helium is much less than that of nitrogen the resultant mixture has at 600 ft. only half the density of air and thus offers a resistance to breathing which is acceptable.

With this mixture Lieutenant Wootley was able to reach the bottom in about five minutes and complete his allotted task. Chosen to simulate the work a diver might do to secure a mine field or a similar tasking.

Although the single breathing mixture took the diver safely to the bottom the problems of decompression still remained for helium would dissolve in blood and tissues at a mixture similar to nitrogen. This had been calculated to require about seven and a half hours of decompression a time which no cold Norwegian statesman was more than any man could tolerate.

The pressure changes in water are such that as the diver gets deeper, a much greater distance up or down can be undertaken than when he is nearer the surface for the same relative change in pressure. For this reason an ascending diver can come about two-thirds of the depth before stopping and therefore coming up in 10 ft. stages he must have increasingly longer stops.

It was therefore possible to bring Wootley up to 200 ft. in a very short time. At this depth he was met by a submarine decompression chamber,

a form of diving bell, filled with air at a pressure equivalent to the depth. Thus the diver could enter to find a companion waiting to remove his helmet and give him a hot drink and encouragement. Maintaining the pressure within equivalent to 300 ft. the chamber was located in board the standard vessel and the tedious process of decompression completed in security and with a tolerable degree of comfort.

It is likely to be a long time before a further attempt on this record is made as research is being directed from deep diving to the self-contained free swimming diver who must take his atmosphere with him in bottles. He has a much greater mobility and freedom and although he cannot at present go much below 300 ft. this is sufficient for most present needs. Physiologically the problem will be very much the same but there is one striking difference. The standard diver is fully controlled both in ascent and descent by a team of attendants on the surface. The free diver on the other hand, as the depth and endurance of his breathing apparatus increases is himself responsible for controlling his depth, timing his duration and working out his decompression. The vital question is whether he can do this safely under the influence of even minor degrees of nitrogen narcosis. Thus we have yet to find out and for this reason we must learn more about nitrogen narcosis than it may be avoided or controlled.

Time does not allow mention of the many other interesting aspects of underwater medicine. My two colleagues will be presenting surveys of exceptional practical application about which they are both well qualified to speak.

Even so there is much work which we must leave; problems of apparatus design, underwater propulsion, blast rescue sound and detection. There is also much for us to learn from the behaviour and anatomy of seals and whales and if this summer the much advertised television search for the Loch Ness Monster is successful who knows what secrets may be revealed.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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## ESCAPE FROM SUBMERGED AIRCRAFT\*

22

Surgeon Lieutenant-Commander J. S. P. RAWLINS, R.N.

One of the hazards of operating aircraft from ships is the liability of the aircraft to take a sudden plunge into the sea with little or no warning from an attack which renders escape by parachute out of the question.

Fortunately, in the past, aircraft have tended to float for a considerable period which has afforded the crew a fair chance of effecting an escape. But the advent of the jet-propels has considerably reduced the leeway for the engine being not only exceedingly heavy but basically little more than highly-sophisticated steam-pipes after which an air stream is the process of flooding-up, and the dilly structures providing temporary buoyancy are those few components of the wings and fuselage which are not occupied by mechanical and electric equipment, and the pilot's cabin.

When the present generation of naval aircraft was developed the situation was observed to deteriorate further for their design necessitated take-off and landing with the pilot's canopy locked and their weight exceeded 15 tons—about double the weight of a London bus—and if you can visualize the problem of escaping from a London bus dropped into the sea from a height of 30 ft. you will readily appreciate that aircraft were becoming a little apprehensive about the possible outcome of a ditching<sup>1</sup>.

In June, 1954, the matter was discussed at the Ministry of Supply and at the same time a survey was made of the liability of recent ditching accidents. The latter revealed that 30 per cent. of aircraft involved in any form of ditching failed to escape, and there appeared to be no record of a successful escape from aircraft which had entered the water in the inverted attitude. It was concluded that a practical investigation of the problems involved in ditching a submerged aircraft was an urgent requirement.

Subsequently, various proposals for facilitating escape were put forward arising from the idea of explosive charges to cut away part of the fuselage enclosing the cockpit, to the provision of large knives which would allow water rapidly to enter the cockpit and thus prevent the creation of a large differential pressure between the air trapped within it and the water surrounding the sinking aircraft. The Institute of Aviation Medicine

\*A paper read before The United Services Section of the Royal Society of Medicine on the 16th June, 1955.

eventually get out of the cockpit and, when it is made to function under a bar, would carry the pilot clear of the wreckage and subsequently release him automatically from his seat harness and allow him to swim unimpeded to the surface.

It was appreciated at that stage that the problems involved in such a primary would be as follows:

- (1) The effect of the shock-wave from the oxygen-gun cartridge (which contained up to 7500 gr. of cordite and was capable of expelling a 130 lb. mass and on 88 ft. was 88 ft. into the air).
- (2) The effect of the drag experienced by driving seat and man through the water at higher accelerations and higher velocities than had ever voluntarily been experienced before.
- (3) The effect on the lungs of the rapid expansion of those contained air when a man was shot from a greater to a lower depth.

Various acknowledged authorities were consulted and at a meeting on 12th October, 1934, it was concluded that escape by this method was not feasible. On the following morning news was received that Lt Bruce McParlane, Royal Navy, had successfully escaped from a Wyvern aircraft by ejecting himself underwater.

It was almost two years before an opportunity arose of starting positive work on the project. Tests had been ordered on the underwater-pneumatic characteristics of the pilots' and observers' escapees in Vickers aircraft, and it was arranged to carry out some live escapes during this trial. Part of the fuselage of the aircraft, containing both pilots' and observers' compartments was mounted in a steel frame 1600 lb. of weight and so arranged that it could be lowered into a 40 ft. deep tank. A number of preliminary tests were made to ascertain whether the build-up of pressure would be so great as to cause the walls of the cockpit to collapse, and when it was apparent that this was not going to happen a man comprising a dummy and three divers took it in turn to descend in the fuselage to various depths and try to operate the escapees and escape. All were conventional Frogman-type gear and usually one occupied each compartment while the other pair remained in the water as a stand-by team to estimate the subjects should the fuselage collapse at the onset of water when the escapees were jammed and lose their breathing apparatus. Tests were made in both the normal and inverted attitudes.

The impression created by the first test was unforgettable. As the fuselage sank water poured into the cockpit through heating and pressurization ducts and various other orifices. When the cockpit was about half-full the escapee release system was operated. Explosive gels blew off the escapee's head to end the real threatening to knock off his face-piece. Suddenly it was all over and there was complete silence and the subject was able to release his harness and float to the surface.

The conclusion drawn from these trials was that the chance of escape



from Nissan aircraft submerged in the neutral attitude was provided that the rate of flooding-up of the cockpit was sufficiently large in relation to the rate of sink to prevent the canopy being held in place by the action of a large water/air/water differential pressure; but the chances of escape from an aircraft in the inverted attitude, where the pilot's head would be submerged first during the process of flooding-up, were hardly remote.

Accordingly investigation of the possibility of using the oxygen-scut underwater was strongly recommended.

The next phase was begun in February of the following year by fitting a seat with a dummy pilot from an iron frame bolted to the floor of a tank at the Royal Aircraft Establishment, Farnborough. Records were taken of the acceleration of the seat and of the velocities achieved, and the parameters of the shock were generated by the explosion of the oxygen-scute/edge was determined from soundings obtained by crystal pressure gauges located 15 in. from the point of separation of the two parts of the oxygen-gun and at the wall of the tank.

The maximum figures thus obtained with various types of oxygen gun were as follows:

- (1) Velocity—44 ft/sec
- (2) Acceleration—2 g
- (3) Blast pressure—26 p.s.i.
- (4) Height of rise of seat—17 ft.

The operation of velocity was tackled first. A metal tripod was constructed which was attached by a wire to a streamlined float. A second wire connected this to a single choker to a 2-4 litre Jaguar car. The subject clung to the tripod, which rested on the bottom of a 30 ft. deep lake and having made a maximum exertion to lessen the dangers of lung damage during his ride toward the surface signalled that he was ready to go. The Jaguar then accelerated along the lake-side from a racing start pulling the subject up from the bottom at a shallow angle and then horizontally at a depth of 10 ft. across the lake. A maximum speed of 44 ft/sec was achieved in this manner with no damage to the subject when three series reached surface.

On the effects of high accelerations underwater no information was forthcoming. It was suggested that acceleration—as opposed to velocity—might have a profound effect upon the dog because it was known that in order to initiate movement in an unresisted body much energy was required to start the water flowing; but all the experience of the hydro-dynamists related to the behaviour of spherical or ellipsoidal bodies and no forecast could be made which would apply to a pilot and oxygen-scut.

It was decided therefore to tackle the remaining questions together by carrying out actual operations with live subjects but with reduced charges.

The first of these, with 100 gr. of cordite took place in the tank at Farnborough during May. The subject, wearing breathing apparatus, was strapped into the seat at the bottom of the tank. A second diver stood by at the tank was filled up. As before the subject made a maximum exertion

and then signalled that he was ready. Five seconds later the test was fired by remote control from the surface. The test, although a somewhat exhilarating experience, was entirely successful.

A few days later a second test with 750 gr. of cordite was made and this time both subject and chamber were considerably shaken by the force of the explosion which was enhanced by reflected waves from the walls of the tank.

It was decided that the possibility of injury with the next (1,500 gr.) charge could not be included and the project was therefore transferred to another tank which was much larger and in which full photographic records could be obtained by means of high-speed cameras.

Further tests with charges had to be carried out to determine the characteristics of the shock-wave in the larger tank and to check the integrity of the tank walls, for one side was entirely constructed of glass and the pressure on the lowest piece was of the order of 10,000 lb.—comparable to the thrust of a modern jet-engine at full throttle, and the effect of a broken window on personnel both inside and outside the tank can be imagined.

In point of fact in such test one person only was allowed within the danger zone outside the window—the officer responsible for checking the operation on whom the safety of the divers depended. All the cameras and recording equipment were operated by remote control and the operators being linked in the controlling officer by means of an intercommunication system.

A *floatplan* system of controlling the divers and technical actions was devised and practised with due allowance for mistakes and other considerations and in the absence of an emergency decompression chamber all subjects were required to breathe out and in to breathe-out before the signal to fire was given.

By the end of July, five months after the first dummy test at Farnborough, a live shot with the full oxygen-carbide charge had been successfully completed and since then a total of 13 live shots with four subjects have been accomplished.

In addition charges have been fired through the Perspex canopy of submerged fighters to assess the risk of damage from striking the canopy and the possibility of shattering the shattermap of the present oxygen system by modifying the gun for use with compressed-air has been investigated.

The conclusions drawn from these experiments are as follows:

- (1) When the canopy is open or off escape from a submerged aircraft can best be made by climbing out, adjusting the personal mask and ascending to the surface, breathing-out all the way.
- (2) When the canopy is locked in position it is better to employ the oxygen suit, throw it through the canopy if the locker is shatterable plastic, or if it is reinforced waiting for the cockpit to flood up before yanking the canopy and then firing the suit.
- (3) In all cases it is necessary to submerge the lungs against the charge in position by breathing-out prior to firing, and also on the way to the surface after the suit-buoyancy has been automatically released.

Recommendations have been put forward for modification of all oxygen-gases, to ensure their proper functioning under water and the need for further investigation into the development of an auxiliary system for operating the oxygen suit in general with inflatable concepts has been stressed.

Fleet Orders, based on these conclusions and recommendations, are being promulgated and it is hoped to establish a training programme in the near future.

It remains to be seen whether the present mortality of 36 per cent. from ditching accidents can be reduced.

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## SUBMARINE ESCAPE

BY

Surgeon Lieutenant R. J. W. LAMBERT, R.N.

During the last half-century, many methods have been devised, by which the crew can escape from a submarine should it find its surface. The requirements of any method of submarine escape are firstly, that it shall be simple enough to be understood by, and gain the confidence of the least intelligent member of the ship's company, secondly that it shall be independent of help from surface vessels or other outside aid and, lastly, that the apparatus involved shall not be so bulky as to affect adversely the essential offensive role of the submarine as a weapon or render it more vulnerable to enemy action or the normal hazards of its underwater environment.

Methods which have failed to satisfy these criteria include various types of airbags, and the Rescue Bell. The latter is a diving chamber which is lowered on to the deck of the surface submarine from a vessel, moored on the surface so as to permit a straight rail over one of the beams, enabling the submersant to be transferred in baskets to the surface without their being subjected to increased pressure. Although it was dramatically successful in rescuing the crew of the U.S. submarine *Spurton* in May, 1939, the odds against a vessel carrying this being in the vicinity of the surface submarine, and being able to manoeuvre with sufficient accuracy in the face of possibly adverse surface conditions, quickly enough to rescue the crew before they succumb to the atmospheric conditions, in their submergence, are so great, that it has recently been dropped altogether by the Admiralty as a practical method of saving life from wartime submarines.

This has confined the subject of escape to methods which can be operated solely from within the submarine and these all have the disadvantage of subjecting the escapees to increases of pressure and the physiological hazards that go with them, during their escape, in addition to the obvious psychological stress of such a situation. The existing methods are compartment escape as the primary one and tower or chamber escape as the secondary ones. Compartment escape consists of a compartment at either end of the submarine, equipped with hatches from which a length of reel, containing can be lowered to within a few feet of the deck. The compartment is then sealed

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off from the other part of the submarine by watertight doors and flooded. As the water rises, the air in the compartment is compressed until the point is reached at which the pressure within is equal to that outside the hatch and this can then be opened. The hatching fills with water, so the water being prevented the vertical pocket of air from escaping. The crew stand with their heads above the water and as tide slack reaches the trunking and climb out through the hatch.

In tower escape, the survivors leave in pairs by means of a specially fitted diving tower, or gas tower, or a specially constructed chamber built into the hull of the submarine which is flooded up until the pressure is equalised. The pocket of air is then vented through a valve into the sea and the hatch opened. After each pair has left, the hatch can be closed and the chamber drained for remote control from within the submarine, ready for the next escape.

If the submarine has been submerged for any length of time before the escape commences, the atmosphere within it may contain up to about 5 per cent. carbon dioxide, so that during flooding, as the pressure rises, the partial pressure of  $\text{CO}_2$  may well rise to toxic levels. To solve this, in the past oxygen was breathed during the flooding and the ascent. The apparatus built which this was based on—the case of the Royal Navy the Daren Escape apparatus, in the American Navy the Maresca lung, in the German navy the *Disappes*—served both as an underwater breathing set, and as a source of buoyancy to bring the escapee to the surface. During the 1939-45 war the hazards of toxic oxygen poisoning became increasingly recognised, and in April 1946 an Admiralty Committee under the Chairmanship of Vice-Admiral P. Mackenzie, C.B.E., D.S.O. was set up to consider existing methods of escape and to make recommendations for the future. This committee found that a surprising number of men escaping from submarines of all nationalities during and before the war had reached the surface without any kind of breathing apparatus. It also found that many men who had not used them incorrectly due to the stress of the situation and lost their lives, and that many more who used them correctly succumbed to oxygen poisoning. As a result of this committee's recommendations, the medical new interest in first-aid, ultimately came to be adopted by the Navy.

#### First Ascent

This method depends essentially upon a man filling his lungs at a pressure equivalent to the depth of water, before leaving the submarine and exhaling continuously throughout his ascent, so the pressure on his chest decreases and his lungs therefore expand. Since the partial pressure of oxygen in his original handful of air is high, this will be adequate to fulfil his needs provided his ascent is not unduly prolonged. Similarly provided his ascent is not unduly prolonged he will eliminate sufficient  $\text{CO}_2$ , so his inhaled air to keep his alveolar partial pressure of  $\text{CO}_2$  within tolerable limits. As a result of experiments carried out in the Royal Naval Physiological Laboratory,

expected by Taylor (1933), a suitable rate of ascent was found to be about 5 ft. ft. per second. At this rate it can be shown that, for an average man making an ascent, rather more than two-thirds of the  $\text{CO}_2$  he produces is eliminated in the inhaled air, so that the increase in his arterial  $\text{CO}_2$  partial pressure is well within tolerable limits from depths as great as 300 ft. This rate is achieved by the oxygen wearing a 14-liter capacity bag as a mole cover has submarine escape immersion suit, filling it first at a pressure equivalent to his depth. A valve on it that lifts at 4 ft. per sq. in. keeps its volume (and therefore his rate of ascent) fairly constant on the way up. With the solution of oxygen breathing sets the problem of  $\text{CO}_2$  partial pressure during the flooding up stage has been solved by the construction within the escape suit, partments of what is known as the Bubble Breathing System. By means of this, air at any suitable mixture of oxygen and nitrogen is delivered through a special system of valves so as to reach the escapee at ambient pressure throughout flooding up. At present the gas supplied in this is a 40/60 oxygen/nitrogen mixture. The reason for this is to reduce the risk of nitrogen narcosis interfering with a man's drill before he leaves the submarine, and that of a subsequent bout occurring after he reaches the surface, by reducing the nitrogen content, so far as this is possible, without the percentage of oxygen being so high as to produce a serious risk of oxygen convulsions. Breathing a 40/60 mixture at 200 ft. (10 atmospheres absolute) is equivalent, from the point of view of oxygen poisoning, to breathing pure oxygen at 99 ft. (4.4 atmospheres absolute). It is true that at this depth of the mixture is hazardous for more than a few minutes its oxygen content does become a hazard but at 200 ft. so many other factors are present to lessen the chance of a successful escape, that the added risk of oxygen poisoning is a relatively small one, and while a change to compressed air would virtually abolish all risk of oxygen poisoning it would slightly increase the hazard of nitrogen narcosis and hence in the lower depths where there is a much greater chance of a high percentage of lives being saved.

#### PULMONARY BAROTRAUMA

The main risk of the ascent to the surface is that of pulmonary barotrauma, which can sometimes result in traumatic air embolism. The former is caused by an increase in the intrapulmonary pressure throughout, or in a part of the lungs which stretches and tears the stretch forcing air into the unexpanded tissue, and, in more severe cases, rupturing pulmonary vessels so that air is sucked into them and then enters the systemic circulation. This condition was first described by Adams and Finkel (1933) following a death occurring in American submarine escape training. It is not confined to this ascent, and indeed, the death they reported occurred in the case of a man wearing the Maresca bag, but it is probably a more prominent risk in free ascent than it is with breathing sets or in diving operations generally.

Since the adoption of Free Ascent with Buoyancy by the Navy in 1936, previous training in it for all submariners has been carried out in the sub-

surface escape training tank at HMS Dolphin. Up to date approximately 8,900 men have passed through this course, and as the practical part of it consists of one free swim without buoyancy from 15 ft., and two swims from 50-ft., one from 60-ft. and one from 100-ft. all with buoyancy, over 34,000 attempts have been made. Of this number a few, but significant, proportion of casualties has occurred. The number so far is 12, an incidence of only slightly more than one in 3,000. Of these 12 have had symptoms primarily of cerebral air embolism, the other two have shown a clinical picture of widespread damage to the thorax without associated neurological symptoms (in no case has the condition been fatal). However, the organization of the Submarine Escape Training Tank makes provision for these cases, and has an efficient drill for rapid recompression.

The manifestations of an apnoeic have been varied, as would be expected, including cases complaining of vertigo with tingling in one or more limbs, back spasm and flaccid paroxysms, transient interference with vision—in one case the loss of the left field—in another, central scotomata—and in two cases repeated epileptiform convulsions. In the treatment of all these cases it is essential to recompress with the minimum delay and once recompression has usually quickly abolished all symptoms it has generally been impossible to get anything going for the brain. In a few days of these cases electroencephalography has therewith confirmed the presence of some central nervous focus but usually this could not be done until twenty hours or more after the accident, since therapeutic recompression takes at least numerous hours. Of the two cases without signs of air embolism, both had severe subcutaneous emphysema spreading up into the neck and one of them in addition had a bilateral pneumothorax, and a pericardiomediastinum. In only about half of these cases did the subject remember either pain or a feeling of over-inflation in his chest on the way up, and although in several of them the man was reported to be a bad swimmer so far as the man was seen to breathe out either immediately or a little less than average, in none of them was the man markedly worse in this respect than in very many others who swam on the surface without symptoms. Time does not allow me to go into the many interesting clinical points arising in these cases, and in any case there is very much more to be learnt about the various sites of, and mode of action of, air emboli within the brain, but obviously one of the first questions is what the damage comes as a completely hazy pair of lungs, or whether in fact there was some predisposing pulmonary anomaly. In favour of the latter is the fact that more than one of these men ascending from 100 ft. can visualize a sensation of coming out of an underwater tunnel the 60 ft. level. If they were in fact done to residual air in this point it is obvious that the total expansion between there and the surface would be well within physiological limits. In addition, before starting to make any rescue tank man is held by the tank instructor until it has been ascertained that he is breathing out freely, so that in fact he has blown out an appreciable volume of air before he starts to rise. In view of this, and the fact that all these who have subap-

quently become available have been seen to be blown out at least some of the way up, it would seem to suggest that some predisposing cause in the lungs must be responsible. These men who are young, healthy submariners have been clinically examined regularly, their medical histories have been gone into carefully and their chests have been recently X-rayed, before they attempt the course, so one may exclude any gross chest pathology.

Probabilities put forward to explain the mechanism of the original damage have included

(1) *Emphysematous bullae* which might rupture at a lower differential of pressure than it would take to damage the alveolus. This could explain one or two of the cases, but it is difficult to make it fit the facts of most of them.

(2) *A buildup of pressure* in one or more pockets of the lung. Even if it is visualized that a partial blockage of a smaller air passage might, while allowing the pressure in the rest to equalize with the rest of the lung, during the flooding or compression stage, when the increase in pressure is relatively slow, nevertheless block the escape of air sufficiently, during the rapid decompression of the ascent, to allow a pressure buildup to occur, leading to alveolar rupture.

A gross case of this was thought to have occurred with a first world war US submarine escape training tank in New London in April 1937. A trainee arrived at the surface unconscious and died a few minutes later in the recompression chamber. At the post-mortem one bronchus was found to be partially blocked by a calcareous body, which was thought to be derived from a calcified gland, and having ended through the bronchial wall and travelled along the bronchus to a point where it blocked it, to have formed in fact a "ball valve." Both the damage to his lungs and intracranial damage due to air embolism were extensive. While the pathology must be very rare indeed, it does seem possible that some similar mechanism in a milder form could be responsible for some of the cases encountered.

*CO Compensatory Alveolar Emphysema*.—In a paper published in 1940, Maclellan and Maclellan suggested that several factors working together led to pulmonary interstitial emphysema.

Firstly they suggested that if in the past there had been an atelectasis of one small region in the lung, too small afterwards to show on X-ray, nevertheless it might cause sufficient compensatory emphysema in its immediate environment to produce a potential weakness. Secondly, they pointed out that the pulmonary blood vessels surrounding the alveoli acted as a barrier to their walls. In a normal suspension in the alveoli entrance as well as also does the pulmonary blood flow and in the caliber of the pulmonary blood vessels. In other words, as the walls are stretched so the bulking effect is increased. In abrupt decompression, however, the pulmonary blood vessel caliber is decreased if the lungs become over inflated, due to direct pressure on the heart and great vessels by the expanded lungs, and pressure on the pulmonary capillary bed, by the expanded alveoli. The combination of these two factors could again be a cause of alveolar rupture.



If one regards the alveolus as a square box with four sides surrounding its entrance and a base opposite, the four sides, or alveolar ring will be able to stretch to a greater degree than the base which will be the point of rupture. Alveolar bases are thought to be of two types: those which rest on connective tissue (for instance the blood vessel sheaths), and those where the base is a partition simply between two adjacent alveoli. In the first type if the connective tissue is part of the perivascular sheath following rupture the air will find its way to the hilum via the sheath and the bronchovascular rays, and so set up a mediastinal emphysema. Having started to travel in this direction other respiratory movements will produce a pumping action to keep the flow going, and it seems that a positive differential of pressure can be produced in the mediastinum. In addition when the pressure within the alveoli is released the air to the horizontal planes will be at a positive pressure, so that, if blood vessels are torn by the air tracking along the perivascular sheaths, air might be positively forced into them. In the second type a minor rupture of the base which did not tear the blood vessels would produce no symptoms, but the air would simply pass into an adjacent alveolus, and indeed it has been suggested that there are 'physiological pores' uniting adjacent alveoli. A major vessel rupture, however, might tear the vessels within the base and the vein being collapsed at the time of tearing would be in a suitable state to suck at it subsequently, when a fall in intra-alveolar pressure permitted air to re-entrain, and so maintain an air embolism.

These suggestions as to the cause and mechanism of pulmonary haemorrhage admittedly leave many points open to criticism and very much more experimental work will be needed before it can be said how the damage does occur. Nevertheless, it is a subject of interest as well as one of practical importance, for if completely healthy lungs are being damaged during training, then some where possibly the limit is at least and must be changed. If however there is some predisposing intensity of the lungs the problem becomes one of diagnosis, and personnel selection and perhaps with the ever increasing diagnostic possibilities of radiography such these anomalies may be picked up as they occur in the future.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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## THE CHRISTMAS ISLAND STORY

BY

Acting Surgeon Commander F. D. G. FUGAL, R.N.

## PART II

## Dear Nieces, Two

By the 15th May the ships of the "Gaggle" Squadron had all assembled and the day was declared D-Day means our R.M.S. allies embarked representatives of the British Press and Press Agencies who had flown up from "Christmas" to Mutton Island that day.

The weather on D-Day 31st May seemed rather less certain than that on the morning of the first drop, however, the criteria for safety were fulfilled and the programme went ahead.

As before we all assembled on the flight deck to witness the burst. This time, however, there was considerably less tension, and some appeared almost blasé about the whole affair. Some indication of what might be expected, however, was given when we were warned not to remove our goggles on looking round to view the burst until such time as the all clear should be given.

The two initial runs passed off without a hitch and we were then told that the third run would terminate with a "free count drop". As the plane came over the ship the pilot announced that the target was now obscured but that he anticipated that it would clear. A few seconds later he stated that the target was now visible and shortly after that we heard that the weapon had left the aircraft. A tense silence followed, as everyone waited, poised and expectant. The time 1241. As "over" was reached in the count down the now familiar wave of warmth struck the back of our necks. At "ten" on the count up we turned round and here was a most extraordinary spectacle. Even with our goggles on the heavens were still brilliant. And there was the fire-ball huge, scintillating and beaming with post-up power, forcing its way upwards and outwards at a truly fantastic speed. For a second or two it closely resembled a giant red-hot coloured sun-egg, but as it shot upwards a shaggy milk was sucked out from beneath it and rapidly condensed with the vortex of swirling cloud formed below by the swirls of coal air. And now the whole appearance more closely resembled that of a mushroom than could be imagined possible. For in addition to a perfect mushroom shaped head, we now beheld a typical stalk, ragged throughout its upper third, which had

been formed by the rain cloud, red streaks throughout its lower two-thirds which had been formed by volcanic cloud. The base of the stack merged with low cloud which obscured the skyline. Within the rim of the smoke rose, brilliant purple and oranges compressed without in any way clashing, so that one might be accused for describing the whole appearance as being extraordinarily beautiful. Everything was cooler and fainter than in the previous "drop" and I did not take us apart to realize that we were witnessing one of the biggest explosions ever to occur. Seeing the furnace much below appeared within the substance of the rockmass and the stack began to heel over. Curiously enough the noise was even less than in the first explosion, although the effect on the ear drums more marked. The high level of detonation and the direction of the wind have a profound influence on these matters.

The Pems had been invited aboard for gas, lunch and a walk around the ship. The sea was still quite choppy, and they received a thorough shaking as they were brought across from Aike to our motor tender. It was fun to meet some of these whose articles are so well known. Cassiodor himself, looked to the ship but with very much like his profile in the Dark Horse. As we well know he has no leg in looking for boards as he has for the M-Bomb and his final words to me were that he would fight for a new flag under the *Wanderer* Pennant. He is not the of mine. However as he wrote later, we parted without "crossing razor blades". Among other well-known journalists was Mr. Chapman Fowler of the *Daily Express*. For him the *Sok Day* performed a special drying and pressing service so that he left *Warrior* as neatly pressed as he had left *Aike*.

We sailed for "Christmas" on the evening of the first of June. It was planned for Harver and Maruk to spend a few days at Penryn and for Fukaki and Rahen to go to Papete. Meanwhile *Aike* bade us farewell and sailed for Singapore flying her paying-off pennant.

#### Penryn Again

We sailed for Penryn on the 11th June, stopping briefly at Aike on the 11th to refuel Maruk who had just returned from Penryn.

Our arrival at Penryn on the 11th caused a minor sensation to the population who had of course seen neither a carrier nor a helicopter before.

They came out by the dozens the first day and by the hundreds the next, and gazed wide-eyed at everything there was to be seen.

That evening we held a concert party onboard—one of the acts was provided from ashore—a demonstration by the Hula group. Needless to say the whole ship rocked and rolled with applause as the girls put into action. Dressed in their native skirts they certainly "swing it." Our guests from ashore who were at the audience seemed to get even more carried than we were—and one Andrew Morrison (who had lived in Penryn for many years), a member of the fabulous Williams, eventually found he could stand a no longer looking on "old crew," he rushed up on to the stage and leapt into the fray.

The Hula girls quite often should disappointed—and the natives found themselves with the game but no game pie! However they gave them a roasting shell—but this unfortunately was the last we saw of the Hula girls that night.

There are those days which one will always remember—the 13th of June was just such a day for me. I have referred already to the city hospital where—and the constant medical progressions—Dr John Keelson, a Marstonian, trained in Fiji—who lives with his charming Fijian wife and baby son in a small house behind the hospital.

The doctor and his wife had been abroad for the concert and he had kindly asked them of us to go 'posting' with him next day.

The day was perfect—there being little disturbance in the surface of the lagoon and yet sufficient bottom to carry our boat along at a reasonable speed. The Marstonian was very friendly and assured us that we would come back with plenty of pearls. To add weight to his argument he produced a little box and let us choose one path. The value of a pearl lies of course in its colour, shape and watching qualities. The pearls here are mostly of the golden variety although some are white, some green, and very occasionally to deep a people as to be almost black. A perfect white pearl, we were told, cannot be seen when removed in a glass of water. Between World War I and the Spanish Civil War this island did a thriving trade in the golden pearl—for whereas in England such a pearl is virtually valueless—in Spain it is the golden pearl that is held in esteem. The Civil War, however, killed the trade, and it has never recovered. Nowadays it is the pearl shell that provides the natives with their livelihood. The small oysters in which pearls are found lie on the sugar beach at only a few feet of water, but the large oysters which provide the pearl shell lie in 50-30 fathoms or even deeper. The natives can dive to 10 or 20 fathoms wearing nothing more than a pair of goggles. They descend with a lead weight to which is attached a line which leads to the surface. The surface end of the line is attached to a log. Diving to this depth is a hazardous business and fraught with danger. Only a few of the natives do it. On reaching the bottom the diver prisms what shell he can in one minute and then ascends. On reaching the surface he rests for a full ten minutes. Although these time restrictions have to be imposed, it is possible for a skilled diver to collect as much as two flat-sized skeletons of pearl shell in a day—which at four shillings and sixpence per pound, explains why these islanders now lead such a carefree life—a life so idle that they don't seem to bother to catch fish to eat but can afford and prefer to live out of men.

We reached the entrance of the lagoon a little under an hour. We anchored to a coral head which lay about 12 ft below the surface and which was about 15 yards in circumference. Now the tide was low, following which the channel was so broad as to be horizontally and about 3 ft above the vessel—thus providing a perfect vantage point for watching. I have never seen before, and something which proved extraordinarily effective. We were just about to quench our thirst and look on to our sandwiches when the doctor drew our attention to the fact that it was a mistake to hold proper peace in a

driving expeditious and the helmsman now rounded a long prayer as we sat in silence.

After the meal we slipped on our goggles and each carrying a sack and wading gloves and gym shoes, descended over the side and submerged.

The world we now beheld was almost too fantastic to describe. All around the edge of the coral head fell sharply away into a deep chasm—the bottom of which could not be seen. With one foot on the coral and the other out in space it looked and felt as if one were tumbling into the unknown depths. Fathoms of all sizes, shapes and colours could be seen swimming along at different levels. There were tiny blue ones—a brilliant, unfortunately vivid blue—which would collect around a spray of coral, and as soon as your hand approached disappear like lightning within the fronds. I saw two or three quite large white sharks but I was assured that they never approach the coral reef. Thousands of octopi, varying in depth from a few inches to two fathoms lay around—it was merely a matter of picking them up and thrusting them into the sack. Our helmsman actually showed us an octopus still open with a pearl plainly visible within, about a fathom down. He then picked it from its bed and returning to the boat opened it and produced the pearl in proof to those who could not believe their eyes that they had actually seen a pearl within an octopus—*undoubtedly*.

When our sacks were full we returned aboard and then began the hard job of reaching upon the octopi with a knife and feeling the pearls. There is no way of telling which octopus will hold the pearls; it may be large, small, thin or thick, it may be first out of the sack, or the last—there lies the fascination. I should guess we found about one pearl in every hundred octopi but we opened several hundred before we found our first pearl. Altogether we found about seven pearls before we re-entered the water to refill our sacks.

The work failed, we sat out for home. That night on the quarter deck the officers clustered around the table and had the thrill of a possible pearl plus a delightful oyster—they found no pearls. Next day, however, we opened the rest. Although still alive it was now quite easy to prove them open and quickly divide the muscle that drives the two halves of the shell together. About fifteen further pearls were found, several being quite fine ones.

That evening we had the second showing of the coconut party. This time the Black group came in lower with more and denser and less room and whether the audience yelled with delight, the girls waving their flags, as they had done among them before, the men beat the drums and danced to the rhythm with lightning speed. The Chamberlain's Secretary lost complete control of himself and downing a glass stood leapt up and waggled himself dazed. It was a great evening which neither Fairlyne nor Purser will forget.

Next day the Island Council gave a luncheon party to fifty of the officers and men. We sat down at a long table covered with various palm leaves—there was walking pig, chicken, raw fish in coconut juice (delicious), yams, breadfruit and other delicacies. We were served by the Black girls who done

direct broke us working themselves into a frenzy, as the local band warmed up. It was "top" in a big way. But now it was time for our real fireworks and after speeches by the Commodore and Charles, the local constable, we walked from the dining hall to the party and boarded the L.C.M. that would take us back to the ship. Pearl, the partner of them all, came with us, but only as far as the ship. We had been backsliding since from Pandega, and we wanted to "breakfast" her—that had to await the temptation! We sailed at 1400.

#### THE THIRD BURN

We reached Malden p.m. 15th June. 18th June was declared D-Day minus one. On D-Day, as before, the various ships of the squadron took up their positions early in the morning. H.M.S. *Salvator* whose crew had not hitherto remained afloat, was this only newcomer to the scene.

By 1000, when lower deck was cleared for witnessing the burst, the sky was nearly devoid of cloud, and the day appeared perfect. The vapour trails of the two Victories could be seen approaching from the north. As before, the aircraft passed these lower directly overhead before the weapons were finally released. The time was 1043. The wave of warmth at the time of detonation, perceptible on the back of the neck, was on this occasion more marked and more prolonged than before. When "let" was called on the count-up, the flash wasiding fast and the fireball appeared slightly smaller than for the second burst. Around the fireball we could clearly see a halo of cumulus (*Wilson Cloud*), a phenomenon we had not hitherto observed. This disappeared in a matter of seconds.

Now the fireball began to surge upwards, and as it did smoke belted from it, and it assumed the shape of a "volcanic" cap—grey overall, with a bright yellow band at its base, somehow more dramatic, yet its less colourful than before. Then a white cap appeared at the vertex of the cap and passed downwards as when soap is applied to a cube, and eventually the flunder mushroom head was formed. Meanwhile the upsurged surge had moved a well-defined cone to be left behind, pale grey in colour, its apex centred on the underside of the mushroom. Into this cone spiralled the cumulus cloud formed still further below by condensation following the impact of coal on mid-the vacuum. In this manner the stalk was formed, and about this time we heard a monumental crack far more in keeping with what we beheld than anything we had heard on previous occasions although the effect on the rudiments was decidedly less. What followed a low, angry growl which passed for at least half a minute and terminated in such a manner that it was difficult to decide when it had actually stopped. The scene at its climax was the more spectacular than anything we had seen before. The huge mushroom dome, white outside, pale peach within, was supported on a colossal stalk, the upper half of the stalk was shaggy, and the lower smooth. At the junction of the two halves appeared a bulwark skirt. The bottom of the stalk was sheer off as with a gigantic knife, and waving beneath this horizontal edge the

uppermost portion of a sandworm started up on Malden Island—a remarkable sight, well suited to terminate the festive occasion. For the tacked was the last “drop” and it had occurred one year after—in the very day, the first members of “Cripple,” led by the then Deputy Task Force Commander (Commanders Graham, *RSC* and two Burs, *RSE*, *RSC*) landed on the deserted World War II wrecks at Christmas Island as a R.A.F. Blackbird.

On the afternoon of D-Day, the Commodore left Fowler as a goodbye trip to Fiji and New Zealand to express thanks for the help received.

During the forenoon of D plus one, lower deck was cleared and the ship's company informed that it had now been decided that the Christmas Island Burs was to be released. Thus the programme of back loading would have to be substantially modified.

At 1940 on 20th June we sailed from Malden for the last time. A flow of unsteadied and watched from the fishdock as the heavily veiled disappeared beneath the horizon. “Forking restaurant?” I inquired of one. “If I never see it again, it will be too soon,” he replied. I think many of us were inclined to think that way. Everyone had looked hard under extremely trying conditions—and the heat and humidity were beginning to make themselves felt. Christmas Island was reached on the evening of the 21st.

#### STANDARD MEDICAL

The weapons having been successfully deployed—I would like now to try and explode what I consider to be a couple of medical myths.

Firstly, the question of salt—most of us sweat profusely in the tropics and we all lose water and salt; but it has been shown conclusively that proportionately more water than salt is lost. Ask someone on the Messing Room what happens when he sweats and you too can he will tell you he loses salt. These astonishing (improved) natural-tasted salt tablets as these famous bottles have blundered him to the fact that he loses water as well. But continue your questioning—ask a dozen M.I.P.s whether they take these salt tablets and as likely as not half will say “of course I do, I take four or five every week” and the other half will say “never take them in my life, what’s the use of them anyway they don’t do any good.” I believe that latter group are right—I would go even further, I think these tablets may even do positive harm. So uncontrasted has the modern sailor become to the importance of salt that he has forgotten the importance of water, and by consuming salt tablets like sweets, as many do if they get the chance he runs a serious risk of throwing himself into further debilitation. We had 8 cases of renal colic in a crew of about 300 in a period of four months, none of these people had had renal colic before. While I do not suggest that this proves anything, surely it may well be due to a chronic state of mild dehydration resulting from life in a hot ship together with inadequate fluid intake. Carelessly, we never saw a single person whose disability could be explained on the basis of it being due to salt depletion. Why should we? There is already additional salt added

to the dead. We saw a few, perhaps half a dozen, who had "baked out" in the engine room but all these people required was a touch of food and a few glasses of water. In my view they were straightforward cases of dehydration. The matter was put to the tax board. However, for in the middle of May we ceased to issue salt tablets for a brief period—we never had to replace their issue. There was only one noticeable effect—some of the old timers sweated for a few days, but when it was explained to them that when you staggered across the Sahara and your tongue began to tell you it wasn't for a glass of salt, they began to eat dryly. I repeat that all I have said has been couched in unexcusable terms, but I believe the time has come to remove the poison in the light of the experience which I understand has been shared by others.

The second myth I would like to explode is that a flu or a drought playing an unaided abhorrent cameo in the "myth" of the "myth." I just don't believe this is so but if it is, what is the explanation? Now I am not the first to say this—even so I know a number of experienced colleagues may yet show their skepticism. During recent months I have been right after night under these conditions in a temperature usually around 110° F. and never experienced any ill-effects. We have had our full share of diarrhea. We had an outbreak of bacillary dysentery involving 40 persons, spread over a period of a fortnight, each person quite ill for two to four days until chemotherapy took control. We had an outbreak of food poisoning, over 30 people laid out about two hours after lunch with vomiting, diarrhea and gastritis but all recovering equally rapidly. And we have had many sporadic cases of diarrhea of various origin—but no single case could a drought or flu be blamed. I would go so far as to say it is an unimportant cause of diarrhea in the tropics, if it were not for the fact that the other one grows the more one realizes that anything can occur—I would say it never causes diarrhea.

I must draw attention to the horrors of Red Sea Rig. When are we going to throw out the prefabricated, unhygienic and unexcused gunk? In an open-air bath as this it is impossible to arrange for the showers to be closed—when the same showers have to be worn week after week—making it difficult to describe in detail the filth and the sweat that congregate on them. But the sad fact remains that the only reason we can go on wearing them is that they are black from the start. Even those made of tropical woods are stained to the ropes for they cannot safely pass through a day's laundry blowover, the rig is too, wearing is profane and minor if not major skin disease is a direct result. And if there is a case for wearing sandals in daytime why not in the evening when the temperature takes a corner a little higher? How sandals are our Nipon friends—Colonel Cordoba's evening rig consisted of a white short, (made in type of kid) and sandals. I do not suggest that we should wear that rig but we can learn from those who live where in the tropics where it is always cooler than abroad, and surely introduce a rig which is light, contained above all washable.



By and large, the health of the Warner's ship's company and, in fact, the whole operation, has been quite remarkable—merely, apart from the two outbreaks of diarrhea, have we had more than between two and five confined in bed. However, during the final month of the operation there was a sudden increase of skin disease, mainly from scorpions and their crabs. An astounding 100 in the twenties rose to one of over a hundred. Fortunately no single case became uncontrollable, but I feel certain that the stage had been reached in which the semi-sedentary state of these individuals could no longer resist the onsets of the fungus. A considerable number of patients with napkins or bandages of the crutch blamed the wearing of pants (not only the jockey type but also the simple muslin underpants) for their dysentery. I now believe there is something in this. The sequence of events is as follows. The patient wears profusely, his sudden outbreak either began to itch (he had many cases of simple psoriasis) or more often a "just uncomfortable." He then scratches or "adjusts himself" and is in doing drag the pants across his urethra causing minor abrasions to the colostomy opening. The bacteria or fungus then gain entry. A surprising number of patients told me that they had "ruined themselves" by simply getting up wearing pants: a further argument in favour of a washable rag. While, as the subject of practice, we found the really remarkable variety responded as if by magic to a small quantity of hyposensitized cream kindly donated to us by the Tripler Army Hospital. Our routine for them consisted in the application of iodine for four days (but the majority lost not all patients) followed by the application of Whitefield's ointment (emphases being placed on the importance of managing a well run the ship). We found this routine extraordinarily effective.

During the final month we saw numerous cases of prickly heat. For many of these we could do hardly nothing, but a surprising number responded to a combination of calamine or zinc oxide soothing lotion, plus ant-histamine therapy.

We saw remarkably little epidermophytosis and even fewer cases of anal eczema. The majority of tropical ulcers responded to the routine of clozapine treatment. I outlined in my article on Operation *Marathon*. Failure could almost invariably be attributed to fault in technique.

Of appendices we had five—the fifth patient had just time to see the third board before he was lost on the table. The photo covering produced by the *Submarine Spray* proved a first-class tropical dressing.

Our plan for dealing with reference casualties had, of course, never to be put to the test. While on the subject of the reference board it is worth while pointing out that such subjects as decontamination of aircraft and personnel were mainly the province of the Defence Office although of course, we worked in close liaison with him. Conversely decontamination of sampling aircraft and personnel ashore were the responsibility of a medical officer trained by A.W.R.E., namely Squadron Leader Stewart.



## ROYAL FLEET AUXILIARIES

<i>Port Boatmaster</i>	Established the first berthing shed on 23rd June 1896. She was used usually to transport supplies and temporary Headquarters. She was later an Army ship for the Gibraltar Squadron. She was equipped with large cranes and spaces for carrying fresh provisions.
<i>Port Commander</i>	Played a similar role.
<i>Port Hospital</i>	Was, in addition, equipped for carrying wounded.
<i>Gold Ranger</i>	Was the first tender to arrive. Was <i>Porter</i> then <i>Gold Ranger</i> . <i>Porter</i> and <i>Gold Ranger</i> were also equipped throughout the period in carrying oil.

## SHIPS OFFICIALLY CHARTERED BY THE ADMIRALTY

<i>TES No 1110</i>	Was one of the first ships to arrive and carried a particularly extensive cargo including landing craft, provisions, lighters, draughts, and heavy military equipment.
<i>SS. Ben Hur</i> } <i>SS. Ben Hur</i> }	Carried one master datum to the River.
<i>Argonaut</i> (SS)	Carried vehicles and plans to 21 Field Engineer Squadron.
<i>HT. Despatcher</i>	Brought the first squadron of the Tank Force home, arriving 23rd June 1896.
<i>SS. Charles Darwin</i>	Arrived in July 1896, with the second wave of the building force.
<i>HT. Charles</i>	Arrived in early September 1896, carrying the remainder of the 21 Field Engineer Squadron.
<i>SS. Franklin</i> } <i>SS. Ben Hur</i> }	Were chartered as cargo ships.

## THE ARMY

The Army had to build up from scratch a considerable Temporary Urban Camp—700 tents and messes, and about 40,000 square feet of heated accommodation were built on one 'Sector' (Part of London—40,000 feet—two years). 7,000 square feet of buildings involve 100,000 cubic feet timber for framing (mainly oak) and 3,000,000 ft. of boarding material, including a main gateway 2,000 yards long by 40 yards wide capable of holding a Victorian Victoria or a Chatterbox! In addition it had to build up a road system and supply a transport service by sea, mainly clearing supply ships—brought from day to provide storage and beyond to make the up and down supply local, round and return to ports, depots, and provide general maintenance for the whole population of well over 100,000 men.

The main bulk of this work was completed during the general lull, 1896, in February 1907—and commenced a major strength. By the time the Army agreed the bulk of the Army force had already commenced their journey back to the United Kingdom.

21 Field Engineer Squadron, Royal Engineers, formed in undertake the work were were provided with a total strength of 48 officers and 531 men, made up as follows:

11 Field Squadron	A small permanent unit.
11 Field Squadron	The first of the Tank Force units to land on Christmas Island (24th June 1896).
71 Field Squadron	A specialist squadron concerning a plant group with over 100 pieces of engineering plant and an inventory and maintenance group. This squadron had undertaken the preliminary work for disposal in Mauritius in 1896—first of the original permanent units to be Q.M.S. returned.
64 Field Port Squadron	Made up of a workday group, a main camp and a transport camp.

## Auxiliary units included:

21 *First Air Liaison**Royal Engineers*204 *Postal Unit Royal**Engineers*2 *Special Air Liaison**Squad Troop Royal**Engineers*4 *Brigade Supply Service**Company Services Unit*

Provided warehouses for discharge and loading of stores in the anchorage

They laid and maintained 200 miles of cable including 75 miles of high quality circuits and installed four telephone exchanges

Was responsible for all amphibious vehicle plants of 10 D 17 E 70's to support troops on shore by maintaining a ship to shore cargo service together with a supply of amphibious landing of a supply depot, which included a beachhead and cable storage component and a field battery service.

Designed to give all working support to the Army units for the inspection, maintenance, repair and recovery of all types of equipment

## ABOUT AIRCRAFT

If the prospect of the things, simple, simple, simple, and others who lived the Pacific and would have been, Christmas Island they would have indeed marvelled. In some cases, undoubtedly that their eyes were asking, plus less than a quarter of a century ago.

The Royal Air Force formed in the East Group designated No. 140 Wing in modernized their varied responsibilities which included such diverse responsibilities as dropping the weapons, high and low level meteorological reconnaissance flights to assess the weather forecasts, aerial photography and mapping that the birds, and also more general that hundreds of miles, such as reconnaissance, the flying of new materials and road between the various islands, together with such jobs as aerial refueling and post service. Between 1942 and 1945 a wide variety of aircraft—ranging from the big bombers to the small fighters, which have been assembled together in the airfield. When it was in part of it, in other words, it was a Christmas Island.

## Various Types

The R.A.F. had been in the Pacific in the 1940s, and the Christmas Island. This type of aircraft was used for dropping the new weapons. Used for taking supplies from the water, either direct or indirect from the airplanes.

Used for high level meteorological reconnaissance and high level aerial photography.

Used for the first meteorological reconnaissance for the search of a large area of sea in order to clear it of shipping, and for high purposes in transport and photography.

Used for many other purposes in the Pacific and Australia.

Used to provide a link in the air between Christmas Island and the Pacific. Used to transport the new weapons to Christmas Island in order to keep down the fire and other weapons, and also in a high concentration, some aircraft within the island area. This aircraft was transported to the island under a license.

Was used as an air base for reconnaissance aircraft for a long time— in fact the aircraft in the Pacific were used for transport, and for air transport purposes both in Christmas and in the Pacific, where following the first time there was a plane of this type, due to dropping fuel tanks.

The Royal Air Force had been in the Pacific in the 1940s, and the Christmas Island. This type of aircraft was used for dropping the new weapons. Used for taking supplies from the water, either direct or indirect from the airplanes.

The United States Air Force transported material from Honolulu to their command at Pearl Harbor in their great C-124 transporters. These aircraft were based via Christmas Island.

R.M.S. *Warner* carried these dropers. They underwent the stress of search and reconnaissance. On two occasions she was transported without any loss of cargo. One of the aircraft was lost during a heavy landing and rendered permanently unserviceable; a second was lost when it "dropped" off Midway following a severe failure shortly after takeoff. Fortunately the loss of these damaged aircraft. One replacement was obtained from Honolulu.

*Warner* also carried four B-24 Superfortresses. These required available space. On one occasion they received an oil jet and two men from a carrier landed directly by means of a sling, and the machine the same technique of the United States. They provided an air ambulance service from *Warner* to Christmas Island hospital. One wing a long journey followed by a twenty-five minute run with a pilot dead. Ship to hospital by helicopter took eight minutes. On two occasions supplies like were carried out from R.F.A. from *Warner* using a light aircraft carrier usually made for the operation. A helicopter also flew to Midway when *Warner* was at 175 miles away, and brought back a mailbag containing to R.M.S. *Warner* who was suffering from staff operations. An air-lifted box between *Warner* and Christmas Island airport were presented in important position. They were about 10 miles the landing when the helicopter could fly from London to Paris in under one minute. An Indian, too, for short range, reconnaissance from they proved indispensable.



Warner (Christmas Island) 1942

Fig. 1—B-24 Superfortress (1942) — the picture on Indian to show the aircraft (1942) was undoubtedly shown to be that in reality. South West, off, a little later.



FIG. 8.—Seen from forward: the deflection of the operator due to water opposition

#### WHO WAS WHO IN THE CRAPPALE MEDICAL WORLD

##### ROYAL NAVY AND ROYAL FLEET AUXILIARIES

DAVISON R. W.	Surgeon Lieutenant R.N. Auxiliary Medical Officer R.M.S. <i>Warrior</i>
DEANE M. T.	Ship's Surgeon, Medical Officer R.F.A. <i>Fort Dischannon</i>
FRASER J. S. R.	Surgeon Lieutenant, R.N.Z.N. Medical Officer H.M.S. <i>Scotia</i>
FRASER E. W. P.	Surgeon Lieutenant R.N. Medical Officer H.M.S. <i>Albatross</i> Head Nurse Medical Officer H.M.S. <i>Warrior</i> during Operation <i>Albatross</i> in Monte India in 1946
FRASER P. D. G.	Senior Surgeon Commander R.N. Squadron Medical Officer Senior Medical Officer R.M.S. <i>Warrior</i> Head Nurse Medical Officer H.M.S. <i>Albatross</i> during Operation <i>Albatross</i> in Monte India in 1946.
GAMMAHON A. L.	Surgeon Lieutenant R.N.V.R. Medical Officer H.M.S. <i>Albatross</i> Head Nurse Medical Officer H.M.S. <i>Albatross</i> during Operation <i>Albatross</i> in Monte India in 1946
GRANT D. H.	Surgeon Lieutenant R.N. Medical Officer H.M.S. <i>Coral</i>
HALES A. G.	Surgeon Lieutenant R.N.Z.N. Medical Officer H.M.S. <i>Scotia</i> <i>Phuket</i>
HEWITT S.	Ship's Surgeon, Medical Officer R.F.A. <i>Fort Dischannon</i>
HEWITT G. H.	Surgeon Lieutenant R.N.V.R. Medical Officer H.M.S. <i>Albatross</i>

## ARMY

Don-Brown J. Lieutenant R.A.M.C. Medical Officer 28 Field Hospital  
Singapore Royal Engineers

## ROYAL AIR FORCE

Allison W. L. Squadron Leader R.A.F. P.P.M.C. 2 Group Bomber Command  
Beloved Wing Commander. Died after second drop over  
India.

Bailey J. Squadron Leader R.A.F. Senior Medical Officer. Cleverton  
Island.

Coxon A. Flight Lieutenant R.A.F.V.R. Assistant Medical Officer  
Cleverton Island.

Coxon P. A. Group Captain R.A.F. Principal Medical Officer Transport  
Command. Visited Cleverton Island on first visit.

Dwyer G. H. Wing Commander R.A.F. D.F. (R.A.F.) Bomber Command.  
In charge of special wing command in Cleverton. Had been  
Medical Officer of H.M.S. *Traveller* (Health Ship) during  
Operation *Marston* in 1943. Passed Cleverton through control  
shed at Wharfedale during Operation *Truce* in 1945.

Hebblethwaite D. Squadron Leader R.A.F. Health Officer in 100 Wing  
R.A.F. replaced by A.W.R.E. Responsible for disastrous cases of  
malaria in Cleverton.

Gregson-Wright E. C. Wing-Commander R.A.F. Health Officer General.

Wilson G. A. A.F.C. Air Commodore R.A.F. Headquarters, Middle Eastern Office in  
Tah. First Commander. In this operation acted as sample  
collector. Took a high flying Commando collecting the blood  
Agarwood Wing Command (Bomber) through the island in  
1943 and collected samples. Before 1943 the only way to collect  
these valuable samples was to fly patients to the island and then  
transfer to ship through them on parachute. During 1946  
was present at Monte Tello for Operation *Marston* and at  
Hardinge for Operation *Truce*.

## CIVILIANS

Price S. Assistant Medical Practitioner. Cleverton Island.

Roscoe J. Assistant Medical Practitioner. Cleverton Island.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

In conclusion I would like to express my thanks to Surgeon Lieutenant  
G. Taylor who very kindly gave me notes on the early aspects of Malaria  
to Surgeon Lieutenant R. W. Donachie R.N. who patiently read through the  
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and pointed out some glaring spelling mistakes, to the main that let my lag  
so thoroughly that I had to spend five days in bed during which time I was  
able to corroborate the part of this article to all other medical officers  
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## HER MAJESTY'S YACHT BRITANNIA

BY

Sergeant-Commander F. C. H. BELLING, R.N.

*Britannia*, which was built by John Brown and Company of Clydebank, and commissioned in January 1854, is the latest of a long line of Royal Yachts.

## HISTORY

In Anglo-Saxon times although the "King's ships" belonged to the Sovereign, being either paid for out of his own revenue or else raised by the subjects in return for certain privileges, there was always one vessel which was reserved for the use of the King himself. One of the earliest recorded instances of the use of the Royal Yacht is the story of King Edgar being rowed to his barge on the River Don by eight independent kungs, who had come to pay homage to their overlord.

After the War of the Roses we begin to hear of gilded barges which were used, by Royalty for pageants and reviews, and Queen Elizabeth, who never left England, confined her maritime excursions to passages by barge on the sheltered waters of the Thames.

On his return from exile in 1660 Charles II and his family sailed from Deventer on Rotterdam in a yacht with gilded and decorated saloon which had been placed at his disposal by the Dutch. He was so interested in the design that the Burgomaster of Amsterdam asked permission to present him with a vessel of the same style. The outcome of this offer was the *Mary II* which may be regarded as the first real Royal Yacht.

Both Charles and his brother, the Duke of York afterwards James II, were fond of the sea and preserved between them at one time or another no less than 27 Royal Yachts. Most of these vessels were named after members of the Royal Family, but several of them including the *Cleveland*, the *Paragon*, and the *Fidèle* were named after the ladies of the Court whom Charles delighted to honour.

George II enjoyed sea travel and was in the habit of spending part of his summer holidays at Weymouth, where his yacht, usually the *Princess Augusta* was always at his disposal to take him and his family on marine excursions along the south coast. During his declining years two new yachts were put in commission, the *Royal Sovereign* built in 1804, and the *Royal George*, built in 1817. The latter was actively employed until 1845, and was then



said for sixty years as a hall to accommodate the sailors and men of the Royal Yacht. A sister of the *Royal George*, the female *Harwich*, is fitted in *Armenia* at the forward end of the terraced dock.

Queen Victoria enjoyed sailing and made full use of the vessels at her command for her State Yacht to the Continent and for summer visits to various parts of the British coast. In 1841 the first ocean Royal Yacht, the *Victoria and Albert* was launched at Pembroke. She was the Queen's principal yacht for twelve years, when her name was changed to *Gibraltar* on her suppression by the second *Victoria and Albert* and she continued in service until she was broken up in 1867. The second *Victoria and Albert*, also a paddle-steamer, was a great favourite with Queen Victoria: with her unprecedented speed of 17 knots. There were other Royal Yachts during the Queen's long reign which were used as tenders to the *Victoria and Albert* or for other members of the Royal Family. The *Edith*, for example, maintained for fifty years the daily service between Cowes and Portsmouth whenever the Queen was in residence at Osborne. The second *Gibraltar* was used on many occasions by the Prince and Princess of Wales for cruises in the Mediterranean.

Queen Victoria was deeply attached to the *Victoria and Albert* and strongly resisted the building of a successor, but when it became apparent that the old ship was nearing the end of her days, she consented to the laying down of another vessel of the same name with the stipulation that the fittings and ornaments which had been damaged by the Prince Consort and which she loved so well should be copied in the new *Victoria and Albert*.

The third *Victoria and Albert* was launched at Pembroke in 1899 by the Duchess of York, afterwards Queen Mary. The *V. & A.* by which name she became affectionately to be known, had an unfortunate start to her career in which she was being undocked on her completion: she developed a list and was only prevented by the sides of the dock from turning turtle. Queen Victoria never sailed on her as she died a few months after her completion.

For more than half a century the *V. & A.* remained as the principal Royal Yacht. What changes have taken place in the Royal Navy since that day in June 1892 when King Edward VII received his fleet in the new yacht at his Coronation celebrations! All the battleships, cruisers and destroyers, which were drawn up in that array, all have gone long since to the breaker's yard but the *V. & A.* outlived them all. With her gleaming black hull decorated with gold, her jewelled superstructure, her white upperwork, her two hull-topped funnels and her three hull masts wearing the flag of the Lord High Admiral at the fore, the Royal Standard at the main and the Union Flag at the stern, she was welcomed by thousands at every royal review and at ports all round Europe. Stripped of all her treasure many of which are now in *Armenia*, she was passed to the ship breaker's yard in 1951. By a twist of fate the left Portsmouth pier due to *Armenia* was running in.

The only other Royal Yacht built this century was the *Alexandra*. She replaced the *Duchess* in 1904 and survived until after the First World War,

when she was sold to a Norwegian Shipping Company by whom she was renamed *Præst Olaf*.

#### THE ROYAL YACHT SERVICE

One of the unique features of *Brenson* is that she is commanded by a Flag Officer known as the Flag Officer Royal Yachts, and he does actually handle the yacht himself just like the Captain of any of H.M. Ships.

The officers, as a general rule, are appointed for a period of about two years. In the F. & A. some of the senior officers remained for many years. Perhaps the Medical Department holds the record in this respect as I was only the fifth medical officer to serve on Royal Yachts since 1890. One medical officer joined the F. & A. as a Surgeon and left as a Surgeon Rear-Admiral well over twenty years later!

Of the ratings about two-thirds belong to the permanent Royal Yacht Service. This Service had to be reconstituted in 1933 for the commissioning of *Brenson* as very few Royal Yachtsmen (as they are now called) remained from the F. & A. This was done by calling for volunteers from the whole Navy, the final selection being made by a Board composed of officers already appointed to *Brenson*. All ratings selected for the Royal Yacht Service have to serve a probationary period of one year before final acceptance after which they are paid an allowance of £5. 0d. per day.

Promotion within the Royal Yacht Service can, of course, only be made as vacancies occur, but no rating is promoted who is not fully qualified by General Service standards. The junior ratings are thus encouraged to take courses and pass the necessary examinations for promotion. When their Form R 12 arrives, they are given the option of either continuing on in their present rating, or of being promoted and rejoining the General Service. Many for a variety of reasons often financial choose the latter course so that there is a healthy change particularly amongst the junior rates.

The remaining one-third of ratings are drafted in the usual way, if possible from the waiting list of those wishing to join the Royal Yacht Service, and do not remain in a rate for more than two years.

#### THE MEDICAL DEPARTMENT

The present complement is one Surgeon-Commander, one S.B.F.O. (O) and one S.B.F.O. (M). Both the latter are permanent Royal Yachtsmen and have served on *Brenson* since her commissioning.

On certain occasions on Royal Duty it is considered desirable that a Surgeon Specialist should also be served. When Surgeon-Captain D. D. Morris-Pembrey, Royal Navy, is appointed, he joins as a Member of the Royal House hold and assumes medical charge of all those who live in the Royal Apartments. He is, of course, also ready to give advice on the treatment of any officer or rating. As fact he did the first operation to be performed on the Yacht on the day the Queen stopped on board for the first time, an appendicectomy on a

rating from one of the visiting frigates. On this occasion a Surgical Specialist is appointed as a Ship's Officer. These Kingston Captains—H. L. Cline and W. J. Foster Gould and Surgeon Commanders P. G. Brown have all served in that capacity. I need hardly add how very welcome all these Specialists are when they come on board especially to the P.M.D.'s.

The Medical Officer's Consulting Room is situated just forward of the Naval Apartments with the back bay adjacent to it. This is equipped on very similar lines to those in the larger H.M. Ships. It is of course very fully equipped to deal with any surgical emergency with a full-scale operating table and anaesthetic machine. The new type of Periot Wray machine is carried and the necessary apparatus for all types of physiotherapy.

When *Antares* commenced it was decided that the scale of medicine, etc. to be supplied should be the same as for a Cruiser. As the Sick Room must be able to supply, or obtain at very short notice practically everything her requirements, it has come in fact that there are about 475 cists held aboard the scale. This is quite a problem when tendering the Store Account!

#### ROUTINE

The Yacht is run on very much the same lines as any other H.M. Ship of comparable size. Any idea that everything is always on leave when she is in Portsmouth is quite false. A great deal of hard work is required to keep the Yacht up to her very high standard of cleanliness and efficiency.

One is led to understand that on the 1. 4. 41 the roomer was rather more leniently. A former officer recounted that he passed her when she was lying at a buoy in Portsmouth Harbour. He expected her to be and after dinner he decided to go ashore to a cinema. He asked the Duty Officer for a boat and as he stepped into it was asked: "What day will you be returning, Sir?" On another occasion, so I was told, the Yacht was suddenly captured for a Royal trip and it was found that the Harbourside Officer was in Canada.

One difference from the ordinary H.M. Ship's routine is that there are no parachutes on board. Should, for example, a visiting recruit admit to one being on board or secure an board under the influence, he is considered to have fallen below the high standard required of a Royal Yachtsman and travels at the first opportunity.

#### CUSTOM

There are many customs associated with the Yacht of which the following are some examples:

- (a) Officers wear exactly the same uniforms as it were in General Service except that they do not wear 4-link buttons on their mess jackets. All ratings wear a "Royal Yacht" flash on their right arm and when ratings in General Service would wear red badges, they wear white ones. Ratings dressed as Boatswain in their No. 1 suits wear the signal jammers inside their trousers which are made of linen and have a black band down the back. The cap ribbon just has "Royal Yacht" on it, with a crown between the two words.

- (b) Only the Queen and those to whom she wishes to accord that honour are piped over the side. Thus the Duke of Edinburgh in uniform is piped.
- (c) The Yacht, of course, is never open to the public. When a Member of the Royal Family is embarked no visitors are permitted. At other times visitors are allowed only by the personal invitation of an officer or Royal Yachtsman.
- (d) Royal Yachtsmen are allowed to buy a pint of beer every day from the Customs.
- (e) At dinner in the Wardroom the Royal toast is always drunk standing. At noon on the Queen's actual birthday, all officers meet in the Wardroom to drink her health.
- (f) When the Royal Yacht Band is embarked it plays for Colours every morning of the week, including Sundays.
- (g) All officers are encouraged to appear at one of the Garden Parties at Buckingham Palace each year, and also receive badges for themselves and their wives for the Royal Enclosure during the Royal Ascot Meeting.

#### *His Voyages*

During the first three years of her commission, the Yacht steamed nearly 90,000 miles. The route led to many parts of the world. In addition to the World Tour of 1956-7, which in a way is itself, she visited Canada, the West Indies, the Mediterranean on many occasions, and all the Scandinavian countries except Finland. In home waters she steamed round the north of Scotland on three occasions, visited many of the ports both naval and commercial round our coast and was present at Regattas at both Cowes and the Clyde.

Any medical officer who has the good fortune to serve on *Britannia* may look forward to the most interesting and fascinating experience of his whole career.

#### *ACKNOWLEDGMENT*

I am most grateful to Vice Admiral Sir Casimir Alast Smith, A.C. & C.B. and Captain W. J. Mann, D.S.O., O.B.E., R.N., for permission to publish this article.

# CLASSIFIED MEDICAL REFERENCES IN THE WORKS OF SHAKESPEARE

BY

Surgeon-Captain J. W. L. CROFT, R.N.  
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## PART XIV

### WOUNDS

- 1450 *1st Player* *Hamlet*—the Roman.  
With Death (Death)—*Hamlet* iv. 3.  
*Ghost* *Ghost*—*Hamlet* iv. 1.
- 1451 *Polonius* *Hamlet*—where he had not care of his wound, and  
his many eyes open.—*Hamlet* iv. 3.
- 1452 *Reverend* I am not prone to weeping, as our sex.  
Customarily am.—*Hamlet* v. 1.
- 1453 *Laertes* How much blood it is to weep in, yet than to give  
or weeping.—*Hamlet* v. 1.
- 1454 *Hamlet* My plumed knight.  
Wounds as *Laertes* seek to hide themselves  
in drags of sorrow.—*Hamlet* v. 4.

### WOUNDS

(See also *WOUNDS*, *WOUNDS*.)

- 1455 *Polonius* Search the world's memory. We have two wounds  
among the most by being too sensible.  
*Lord* We must never do much out of ourselves. We have two wounds  
there—and they will compass us as men as good as  
others—they are so pitifully sudden.  
*Polonius* The poor Transylvanian is dead, that lay with the  
last king.—*Polonius* iv. 3.
- 1456 *Lysander* on the tower for you that your sweetest is and eyes would  
light. How have "sensible" wounds?—*Polonius* iv. 3.  
may deal with it and only the wound.—*Polonius* iv. 3.
- 1457 *Marion* "Who is my physician?"  
*Lysander* "Why your best friend—she has two wounds and  
wounds of blood and weeping.—*Polonius* iv. 3.
- 1458 *Reverend* But's independent my Lord.  
And with a soldier's soldier to the camp—  
—*Polonius* iv. 3.

### WOUNDS

- 1459 *Laertes* "What have I done through his eyes?" He should be  
look that he can to speak things strange.—*Hamlet* v. 1.









was in his living quarters, a yard off from the entrance. However, there, too, he saw a "black" man. This man was "lying through the window" and he was "not" afraid of the doctor's approach. He "convinced" us that he was not afraid to go in and see the doctor and was killed in the room where the Devil was helping him, and he was not even frightened when a woman was executed. Our eyes registered an indelible mark: the thinking of any sense of superstition or religious conviction on the subject is totally absent about this case. It is fully consistent looking in light of religiously affected persons in other, especially in the present case, "superstitious" and the thinking of the Devil's magic. There were the "superstitious" elements which are more and more disappearing from the country and this is not strange in the city of Havana.

- |                            |  |
|----------------------------|--|
| 1636. <i>Stella</i>        | And it loved her<br>Thus in the only window I have used — Stella i. 3  |
| ( <i>Boys<br/>Chorus</i> ) | For out of her power do we wish in winning the others<br>( <i>Chorus</i> )   |
| 1637. <i>Antony</i>        | A window down the hall — <i>Proth. Epit.</i> v. 1<br>Please you come when constant power was mightily and magnificently<br>expressed i.  |
| 1638. <i>Moder</i>         | How I am indeed dear within my own<br>Believing but a quantity of life<br>Which, though very good in a form of way<br>Remains from the figure given the form — <i>King John</i> , v. 3 |
| 1639. <i>Proctor</i>       | On these that think in window houses<br>I cannot let them down i   |
| <i>Chorus</i>              | If that be the case, let it be in it<br>Loudly in nature — <i>Where a Tale</i> , v. 3  |

[illegible][illegible]





(*Death of Anne was young, so we agree of the third, on the 15th of May, 1555, at Kenilworth, having been laid by a small priest's child by the Bishop of Bathurst*)  
It was the custom of the nobles to make of expensive garments or to exchange such.  
No change seems to have been made by the French for some time of Anne's.

## Wine

- 1693 *Reynolds* What have you lost your wine?—*Othello* i. 1  
1694 *Age* They know of our work by sea and sea by weathering,  
And our depends on delivery terms.—*Othello* ii. 1  
1697 *Maria* He is more generous of modest but more the more  
is turned to a wife.—*Twelfth Night* iii. 4  
1698 *Clown* Alas we have left you beside your first wine?—*Twelfth Night* iv. 2  
1699 *Antonio* He can find comfort that of his first wine, most feeling off  
and now in the whole more generous with you—  
*Much Ado About Nothing* i. 1  
1700 *Prose* These are the best of wine, with drinking of old wine,  
and substantiating them after supper and sleeping upon  
bedsides after wine.—*Henry 1<sup>st</sup>* Part 1, i. 2

## Wines

- 1701 *Age* There are many wines in the mouth of man which will  
be delivered.—*Othello* i. 3  
1702 *Antonio* Buy up to this dangerous greedy stag  
Which feeds the murther and poisonings.—*Twelfth Night* v. 1

## Winehouse

- 1703 *Reynolds* Tell her we want'd him from the river to the shops.—*Shakespeare* i. 2  
(*is, difficult, unless to, constant, most, as, degree, condition.* In agreement however to  
being being at, kept it, will, having, expression  
From them, the word in the third is, can be, up, and, from.—*Shakespeare* *Death*  
*Death of Caligula* 116.)  
I will be your wine from the river to the shops.—*Shakespeare* *Leicester* 1481  
1704 *Antonio* and the good wine  
brought out down-dull is, broken.—*Shakespeare* iv. 3  
1705 *Prose* Had I then seen my down in battle and hardly my  
so, in a part of drinking.—*Henry 7<sup>th</sup>* Part 1, v. 1  
(*Reynolds*  
*concerns*  
from Henry, but this over the words the Duke of Gloucester at  
the Duke of Alençon.)  
1706 *Reynolds* Had he, he had?—*Shakespeare* v. 3  
*Age* As on the front.—*Shakespeare* v. 3  
1707 *Age* I had thought I have part'd him, but under his rule.—*Othello* i. 2  
1708 *Antonio* Sounds, it is, and, and? I am lost to the death.—*Othello* iii. 3  
*Antonio* as, substance of, and, and, and?  
1709 *Age* I thought you had received some badly named.—*Othello* iii. 3  
1710 *Age* What would did ever last but by sleep?—*Othello* iii. 3  
1711 *Age* And yesterday, let a go, we poor, down, down, down.—*Othello* v. 1  
1712 *Age* I think so, but not left it.—*Othello* v. 2  
1713 *Prose* I'm sure of her more, only the, and, and, and.—*Othello* v. 1  
1714 *Age* When your young nephew, then, then, then, then.—*Twelfth Night* v. 1

- 1711 *So Andrew* His broken my head across, and has given for Toly  
a bloody streamer too — *Tenfold Night*, v. 1
- 1712 *So Andrew* I'll hold you, Sir Toly, because we'll be drawn together  
*Oliver* Get him to bed, and let his head be looked to — *Tenfold Night*, v. 1
- 1717 *Andrew* Had I as many eyes as these last wounds  
Weeping, to find as they drain forth thy blood — *Andrew Carter*, m. 1  
(*Carter had deep-draw wounds*)
- 1718 *Andrew* And, as he drank's he started with cry  
Black how the blood of Carter follow'd it — *Andrew Carter*, m. 2
- 1719 *Andrew* 'Where's the hole you made in Carter's liver?  
What's the wound Carter has in ear? Before  
Should Carter see the night — *Andrew Carter*, m. 3
- 1720 *Carter* The great wound  
That ran through Carter's bowels — *Andrew Carter*, v. 3
- 1721 *Andrew* The sword walks about, and turns out swords  
In the own people's wounds — *Andrew Carter*, v. 3
- 1722 *King* Though the hell's inside the region of my heart! — *King Lear*, i. 1
- 1723 *Warwick* But, let us leave, my sovereigns, to provide  
A soldier for my son that may bestride — *Henry VI, Part 3*, m. 4
- 1724 *King* My pity leads him from to heal these wounds —  
*Henry VI, Part 3*, iv. 3
- 1725 *King*  
*Henry* The edge of war! into an all-spread battle  
No more shall not his sword — *Henry VI, Part 3*, i. 1
- 1726 *Alcibiades* I think all smothering with my wounds being sold  
The covering of things on Earth.  
What parchment has an armed breast — *Henry VI, Part 3*, i. 1  
(*On the all-spread on Earth*)
- 1727 *Edgar*  
*Auntie* I run both to god a new-hand wound — *Henry VI, Part 3*, i. 1
- 1728 *Alfred*  
*Crispin* here's a Crispin's to light as a, that  
no silver as they read us — O us platinum a platinum  
no silver us, but a platinum — *John's Labour Lost*, iii. 1
- 1729 *Glenn* so we have the hour too out the double-hour — *Winter's Tale*, m. 3
- 1730 *Remond* And every word as it's going round  
Hanging like blood — *Alcibiades* of *Ponder*, m. 2
- 1731 *Ponder* How by some accident, Shylock, on your change  
To show his wounds, and he do bleed to death, —  
*Merchandise of Venice*, iv. 1
- 1732 *Andrew*  
*Henry* These wounds again  
I had a wound here that was like a T  
But now, too much as it — *Andrew and Cleopatra*, m. 1  
(*At it were to you my wife*)
- 1733 *Proctor* These wounds find all that men do give themselves —  
*Troilus and Cressida*, m. 2
- 1734 *Cressida* Look how these dead! look how the yet fresh pain!  
Look how the wounds do bleed at many veins!  
*Troilus and Cressida*, v. 3

- 1700 *Menenius* I have wounds upon me, and they ope  
To show themselves speakingly  
Should they not  
Well might they hence gather epigrams  
And inscriptions with death — *Coriolanus*, i. 3
- 1706 *Menenius* "Where is he wounded?"  
*Voltemus* I am double-wound: the left is in — there will be huge dolours,  
to show the people, when he shall stand for his place  
He received in the rupture of Tullus' arrow-bow: the body  
*Menenius* Owe: the neck and rear: the thigh — there: I know that I know  
*Voltemus* He had, before the last engagement, twenty five wounds upon him  
*Menenius* Now it is twenty seven — twenty-six was an ancient's prize —  
*Coriolanus* i. 1

[The sites of these wounds are exactly where they should be after much real and unreal combat in the military trials lasting through scenes. *Menenius* may have some doubts as to what to do for, but he avoids the pitfall of a serious misapprehension of the "wound man." First, why was a military surgeon of 1400, when two such old doctors come on his work, showing the sites of plenty of various types of wounds, the weapons described being such things as swords, spears, knives and such, and speaking in more or less military language, is correct both in the use of wounding a leg — first, for a greater reason to suggest later is that he was one of the best to please the use of looking at the wounds, substituting for it a slight side-doing.]

Although variety was a thing of much better degree than that of confusion in the *Naples* Age — the question being a good second issue, then their "wound" includes the physician — there is no comparison between the wounding of the two — First, *Menenius* was the standard of variety and language; *Coriolanus* was far in the treatment of *Menenius*, judged by our present eye, naturally. Particularly was this so in the treatment of *Menenius*, a type of practice for which there must have been some opportunity in that condition then. Later goes as far as to say the character of the soldier is necessary when so much physical material is provided by the scene and the results of surgery in the surgery — double-pointing surgery, *Menenius* then surgery by a phrase of words, growth of *Menenius* was then made, founded on fairly observed facts in the year had reached him in real world, discovery of the procedure, technology and technology, before variety, medicine, and science. *Menenius* should otherwise had been made and provided, but the episode was, supported by experienced work and founded in this, *Menenius* was in the theory of the business, only *Menenius* was also helped.]

- 1711 *Glenn* and here upon his ear  
The doctors had seen some thick ones  
Which all the while had throbbed — and now he found  
and cried in burning, open bleeding  
But I cannot ill live — bound up his wounds  
and, after some small space, being in need to find  
He said me father — *As You Like It*, ii. 1
- 1712 *Fluellen* I say, I will make her see some part of my talk — is it good  
for your great wound and your bloody wounds — *Henry 2*, iv. 3
- 1719 *Sonnet* Now to the bottom doth thou reach my wound —  
*New Annotations*, ii. 3
- 1746 *Hamlet* they will yield soon  
With the conspirators from your wounds, and how  
The honour'd guests whole — *Hamlet* and *Clayton*, iv. 3
- 1778 *And deep steel holes in Ptolemy's painted wound*  
*Rept of Science* — *Hamlet*, 1406.

- 1741 — His eyes were full of tears & after we speak  
That both of us we used and cared not the degree,  
  *Answer*      56
- 1742 — We hardly knew which wounded because first<sup>1</sup>  
  *Answer*      122
- 1743 — I've wounded help wounds, as great help grows death-  
  *Steps of Daytime*      line 192<sup>2</sup>
- 1744 *Answer* — What would you have me do? go in the wars, would you?  
where I can stay some bright years for the loss of a few,  
and here, not many enough in the end to buy them a  
wooden peg<sup>3</sup>. — *Foraker*      16, 2
- 1745 *Answer* or Read success, high, and very the rage for me  
Believe the wound do you miserable  
For, being gone, there is your hope of help —  
  *Answer*      1.1 Part 2      101
- 1746 *Talks* — One of the eyes and the cheek a mile stroke off<sup>4</sup> —  
  *Adventure of Fanny*      113  
(This wound was produced by a cotton ball.)
- WIND-MADE
- 1747 *Monkey* — the " is squaring of the very neck of life — the chest / 11 11 11 11

*Clinical Notes and Cases*

**DENS INVAGINATUS OF A MESIODENS**

BY

Sergeon-Captain (34) D. L. GOMBERG, B.S.

CASES have been reported of the many variations in the degree of invagination of mesiodens. Such malformation was named dens in dens by Smith (1897) and is still largely so called. With the interest shown in this phenomenon by Kronfeld (1934) and Radtson (1935-1937) it is now agreed that the term dens invaginatus is more accurate, including as it does, all clefts and irregular pits in the crown of a tooth up to the widely dilated and complex malformations which have been reported.

A case has recently been seen of a dens invaginatus with a widely dilated apical area, lying in the median, displacing the left central incisor, and having the crown form of a supernumerary mandibular. The appearance was remarkably similar to that of one reported by Grace-Morris (1913), being given by him the name of a dilated odontoma of 3. The invaginatus form of a mesiodens has been reported only by Hedberg (1952) and of lateral supernumerary mandibular by Archer and Silverman (1953), but in such cases there were only mild degrees of invagination.

*Clinical History*

A male aged 19 was given 7 roentgen examinations in July 1954 at the Royal Marines and was then in pain his upper left central incisor (lying behind to and between the lateral and canine). The left upper central incisor (supernumerary) mobile, swollen and broken down was lying



FIG. 1



between the left lower and upper right central [1] was clearly visible. X-ray demonstrated a large opaque body in the middle. The patient was advised for consultation and surgery with a pronounced diagnosis of ectopic.

At examination on other findings of dental appliances were discovered but he had a unilateral right blue and stoma which later led to his carrying and involving in with for the Royal Marine Service. Further X-rays showed that his condition was in characterizing of a mandible probably a dense megastoma. Impressions were taken for demonstration models in view of the rarity of the condition.

At operation which was done under intratracheal anesthesia, a U shaped flap was swung back from the labial side at the distal edge of [1] along the cervical margin of the arch to the left above the distal edge of [2]. Removal of a thin layer of connective tissue exposed the column and distal edge of the root.



Fig. 5



Fig. 6



Fig. 7



FIGURE 3. (A) PULP SPACE. (B) PULP SPACE.

FIG. 3

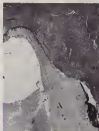


FIG. 4

[A] was removed and [B] was observed directly and found to have a flattened apex. The incision was then carefully cut and elevated and finally removed. There was left behind a flat table of dense bone surrounded by an extensive displacement in which the root of dilated tooth substance had been lying. A biopsy of this table of bone was done and reported to be dense sclerotic bone. The incision was sent to Professor A. B. Proffit for histology.





FIG. 5

## Summary

The very rare anomaly of a dens originating in a mandibular tooth with a widely dilated apex is reported together with displacement of [1] distally and extension of [1] a [1] immature enamel was laid down within the dilatation. The epithelial lining of a small unrooted cyst was also identified within the dilatation.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to acknowledge the kind permission of the Medical Director General of the Navy to publish this case. I am very grateful to Professor A. S. Proffit of University College Hospital Dental School for taking such an interest and for his useful supervision of the sectioning and photographing of the specimen. His reports have enabled me to write up this case and to appreciate its unusual aspects.

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## DENTAL SYMPTOMS DURING ASIAN INFLUENZA

BY

Surgeon Commander (R) G. M. FLEISCHER, R.N.

During last winter's epidemic of Asian influenza, a number of patients complaining of dental pain were encountered. These varied from a mild tenderness or "heavy" feeling in the upper incisor region possibly referred pain from the inflammation of the nasal bones, to a more painful complaint of extreme sensitivity of the exposed cervical surfaces and decay of these patients who had previously a condition of chronic gingival recession.

In a few instances the pain was severe enough to elicit requests for extraction of teeth by the sufferer. This was reasonable for patients, who had they not been suffering from influenza, would have been extremely reluctant to have teeth extracted.

Palliative treatment consisting of painting the gums with mild solutions of sodium, the procaine of Anesdin tablets together with the local application of Tyroline (a proprietary preparation containing Benzocaine) and the use of normal saline mouthwashes were found to be most effective in relieving the pain, and made it possible to meet even the most persistent demands for removal of the teeth.

## NIGHT CALLS IN NAVAL GENERAL PRACTICE

40

Surgeon Captain R. R. R. CURRIE, R.N.

In the November, 1953, issue of *The Practitioner* appeared an abstract of a report by Dr. W. W. Forhan in the *New England Journal of Medicine* (1953). In this he records and analyses 260 consecutive night calls in general practice.

In H.M. Naval Base, Singapore, there are two naval general practices working side by side, and it was thought that it might be interesting to record the night calls in both these practices over a period of a year.

The two practices are:

(1) *The Medical Guard*.—This operates from the Sick Quarters at H.M.S. *River*. The medical officers who keep the register are from H.M.S. *River* and the Royal Malaysia Navy and from H.M. Ships when they are in the

Naval Base. The permanent numbers of patients (approximately) for whom the practice is responsible are:

Ship's Company H.M.S. Teror	670
Royal Malaysian Navy	610
Assent Dockyard employees (after working hours)	8,800

The numbers are considerably increased at various times of the year by the presence of H.M. Ships, R.F.A. Ships, and visiting foreign warships and merchant ships.

(2) *The Family Medical Practice*.—This is operated by the Family Medical Officer from his own home, except when he is officially off duty, when a stand-by medical officer takes over. His practice consists of all European male dockyard personnel and all European wives and children (Dockyard and Naval). The number in this practice is approximately 2,350.

For the purposes of this article a 'night call' was defined as one received between the hours of 2350 and 0650.

Type of Case	Males, Grand Patients	
	European	Assent
1 Major Medical	4 : Asthma 1 Urinary 1 Coronary Thrombosis	40 : Asthma 12 : Asthma 3 : Pneumonia (Complicated) 1 : Myocard
2 Minor Medical	11	52
3 Major Surgery	8 : Hernia 2 : Acute Appendicitis 1 : Renal Tumor	7 : Acute Appendicitis 6 : Renal Cyst
4 Traumatic Surgery (and Neurology, etc.)	11 : 4 due to R.A.	5 : 3 due to R.A.
5 Minor Surgery	20	5
6 Obstetrical and Gynaecological	76	8
7 Major Nervous and Mental	5 : 1 male system 1 : Female system	76
8 Minor Nervous and Mental	5	76
9 Medical-Legal		

(This section includes all those cases who would not have come to see the Doctor or have asked to be moved by test of their own free will, but have been sent down by some third party.)

	50	5
1 Asthma	20	
2 Foreign for work	15	
3 Return for short period	1	
4 Sleep on watch	2	
5 Fatigue	4	
6 A.P.D. 10/90	8	
Total night calls in a year	121	175
Cost for the practice		74s



A CASE OF COMBINED ALCOHOLIC HALLUCINOSIS  
AND DELIRIUM TREMENS

By

Sergeant Commander G. G. WALLIS, R.N.

## Case Report

A MALE aged 77 was admitted to his Sick Bay on 4th February, 1934, with a two days' history of vomit, diarrhoea and fever (38°). His temperature was at the figure of 100° F.

On the 4th he passed out of legal bearings; he said there was a mouse in g. His dream expressed the idea (which the Fleet Commander visited his sick bay and that his wife was in the delirium). His personal property and personal papers were found on the left knee.

On the 7th he was transferred to hospital. He was then totally incontinent and confused; his wife was aged, depressed and often wept and he was grossly disoriented for place. He was halfway down the stairs with whom he talked on intercom (which had no hand-plates for which there was no objection made). His sensory apparatus and group were all impaired.

Physical examination showed a well nourished man with warm and mildly erythematous skin. His pupils were rather dilated, there was a fine tremor throughout in both directions and his movements were a little coarse. His tongue was forced and there was bronchial breathing at the left base. He had no pulse and no other significant abnormality was found.

Treatment with paraldehyde and sodium amygdal was started but he took up his stool because he thought there were dead cats rolled in it. He was prone on the deck, spasmic through the window, discharges on the floor and discharges from everywhere. During one of the weeks he remained with convulsions. Each of six clearly there occurred in pain and spasm. Then, following the delirium and shock which he took to his death, he proceeded with violent convulsions as though there. He showed, however, on the whole and refused to listen to their Christian names. Ultimately he refused to say or feel because according to his philosophy it was necessary to children and although in his opinion this showed over to make room for him, his mother arrived concerned on the same and demanded what little space he was occupying. He remained very noisy and over-awake all night and did not sleep at all although his mood was in the most peaceful and friendly and he was never moved by his experiences.

The first turning, anticonvulsant therapy was required and the convulsions and hallucinations eventually began to subside. By the 7th he was fully rational, oriented and coherent. His temperature fell to the point of the previous few days, but recalled that he had heard the voices of female talking to him.

Case 8 was shown on one of detached duty at the left base previously but on the 20th the long illness was without incident.

In giving his history he admitted that after July 1932, when his memory, back up, he began to be shocked. This drinking his health and his personal life, quantity of rum, beer and gin, when young without foundation and support.

He related that when he was 7 his father, who was a heavy drinker, fell to his death. Evidently his family history was otherwise stable too, among his his children, but had become estranged from all his relatives. He seemed to have been a happy child, although his schooling was stopped by the boarding of London. He passed the Royal Navy from the Training Ship Bermuda and again from two days during over hours after the recovery one of his meetings had an unsuccessful and reasonably successful service career.

His drinking was given in March 1932, because a lady of whom he was the father was already born. In the following May, when he was overseas, his wife disappeared leaving the child with his sister.



After his recovery from his acute illness, his conduct again improved to, although rather low, an open and manner. He was given a relatively severe of apomorphine reaction, which being treated to day. Within a month time he had recovered well, but was not completely symptom free (only bed).

#### COMMENT

According to Mayer-Gross (Stier and Roth (1954) auditory hallucinations occurring in the course of delirious states are rare but mixed pictures of delirious states and hallucinations have been observed. The short and acute illness seems to belong to the latter category. There were vivid auditory hallucinations and it is interesting that they were the only abnormal perceptions which he subsequently remembered. Although there was no incoherence and little anxiety disturbance of equilibrium or constitutional disorder, the stereotyped visual hallucinations were typical of delirious states.

The hallucinations of his scales was an unusual haptic disorder and the perception of disappearing faces was possibly unique.

Persecution was an obvious preoccupying factor. Dramatic return to a normal mental state after only three days of psychiatric disturbance was most probably due to idiosyncrasy. This rapid remission conflicts with the belief of some psychiatrists that the occurrence of auditory hallucinations in delirious states indicates a less favourable prognosis for complete recovery (Mayer-Gross *et al.* 1954).

I am grateful to Surgeon Rear-Admiral L. T. S. Radd, C.B., C.B.E. Q.B.S. for permission to publish this case.

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## AN UNUSUAL DIVING INCIDENT

BY

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander J. N. F. RAWLINS, R.N.

Diving is an occupation which is attended by a number of separate specific hazards with which the experienced diver learns to contend. Should he fail to guard adequately against any one of these his consequent loss of control of the situation will tend to expose him to other hazards and a rapid deterioration from a minor to a serious diving accident may result.

This was the case recently with a diver under instruction who was carrying out an exercise at a depth of 70 ft.

The diver was wearing a flexible diving dress equipped by a open reel surface and open bottom. He was breathing a mixture of 50 per cent oxygen and 40 per cent nitrogen supplied by a sophisticated open circuit demand regulator comprising reducing valve, intermediate-flow and carbon dioxide absorber. The purpose of the exercise, in this case



*After—Comparison of breath volume and volume of blood in veins of the face, resulting from oxygen.*

is to detect the oxygen and thereby inform that the oxygen part of pressure of the working depth were exactly two atmospheres, the air in greater partial pressure oxygen becomes dangerously toxic. The oxygen itself becomes poisonous, a problem for the diver comes only oxygen from the breathing bag and water also continuously absorbed the percentage of oxygen in the bag will steadily fall. This is prevented by maintaining a continuous flow of gas coming from the supply cylinder and since the mixture includes nitrogen as well as oxygen it is necessary to vent off the excess gas through the relief valve on the breathing bag. The rate of flow is determined by the rate of consumption of oxygen which depends in turn upon the working depth. It is achieved by adjustment of the rebreather the diver being so aware that at all times during the dive the absolute percentage of oxygen is available.

On this occasion the diver himself set the flow of the rebreathing valve prior to entering the water and checked against a flow meter. He then discovered a short rope to the bottom and began his work which was to make his way along the bottom at a 1,000 ft. pressure and back. The rebreather was all right and he was immediately transported by the tide.

It was soon apparent that the flow was excessive so before there was no sound of bubbles coming from the relief valve. Instead the man dove where there had been danger being in stage advanced position decided to pass on determined to catch it with his colleagues who were ahead of him on the primary. Reaching his bag through an escape device in order to avoid oxygen build up, however, in consequence to separate an obstacle he first contact with the primary and breathing resumed as he afloat against the tide and pulled the diver to come up.

In these circumstances the diver is involved by a life line or a safety line which endangers

his position just previously, but that it would afterwards change with the diving time and of reaching the surface. Following this, the diver could be very accurately estimated by ability about how long he would be able to do. About three-quarters of the way up he suddenly floated out and fell to the bottom and was afterwards hoisted up into the boat.

He sat and sat and sat, sat off and he was taken to his unconscious and breathing continuously. His face and neck were a dusky purple. The surgeon knew he had a right conclusion but after a further ten minutes he had murmured sufficiently to realize where he was. He coughed up a small quantity of blood and complained of a violent headache and a stinging pain on moving the arm. It was then half an hour after the accident he was situated in the hospital, drier and by this time his condition had improved and was treated in an arm around his neck and eyes. There were no additional bilateral intercostal hemorrhages, and some bleeding from the nose. Recovery was pronounced.

#### Discussion

The underlying cause of this accident was hypoxia due to incorrect setting of the regulator. Atmosphere air contains roughly 21 per cent oxygen and the practical maximum rate of consumption of oxygen by a diver is 2 litres per minute. In theory therefore a man at 66 ft (20 atmospheres absolute) could be satisfactorily supplied with oxygen by a mixture whose flow was such that the percentage of oxygen in the bag would never fall below 7 per cent (equivalent to 21 per cent of one atmosphere) with a maximum rate of consumption of 2 litres per minute. However if he were to attempt to surface with only this percentage of oxygen he would rapidly become seriously hypoxic, and for this reason the flow is always adjusted so that the percentage of oxygen in the breathing bag will never fall below 20 per cent. For a 6000 mixture the necessary flow at 70 ft. is 4 litres per minute.

In this case subsequent investigation of the breathing apparatus indicated that the flow had been cut off due to pin valve locking, and when this was closed the flow dropped to 1.2 litres per minute. By act of repeatedly flushing the bag the diver had succeeded in avoiding hypoxia while on the bottom but as he pulled himself up to the surface with excess gas escaping from his relief valve the partial pressure of oxygen in his breathing bag became inadequate and he lost consciousness.

He now became subject to another diving hazard—that of "squeeze." Normally the diver in a rigid or semi-rigid helmet maintains the gas pressure in his helmet at or a little above the pressure of the surrounding water. If the gas pressure falls below the water pressure, the effect is equivalent to that of suddenly creating a vacuum within the helmet—the gas pressure from these sources and blood is reabsorbed from vessels in the soft tissues of the head and neck and respiratory tract. This condition may either result from a sudden failure of the gas supply to the helmet or from a sudden increase in depth of the diver without a compensatory increase in gas pressure. In the latter instance the effect is directly proportional to the increase in absolute pressure so that falls in shallow water are far more serious than those in deeper water (0 to 25 ft. = 1 to 2 atmospheres absolute = 100 per cent pressure increase).

According to the known diver's estimate he had exceeded three-quarters

of the car, probably between 15 and 20 ft) when he fell. This would entail an absolute pressure increase of 100 per cent and had he been dressed in a standard driver with a rigid helmet his body would have been crushed into the helmet with disastrous results. As it was the flexible suit and helmet were moulded around him by the pressure and a significant gas/liquid differential pressure existed only where his facepiece was held away from his face by its rigid mounting and in his respiratory tract. The haemorrhages were therefore confined to tissues in these areas.

For a complication a very similar picture (due the lung damage) may be



Fig. 1. Compound ear haemorrhages and definite facial bruising (A) and cerebral haemorrhages (B) in this case and neck swelling from exposure to high gas flow (C)—caused by a pressure spike, in 1. Earthen sealant.

seen in aviators who have been exposed to peak values of supersonic 'g'. The mechanism is essentially the same: namely excessively high intrathoracic pressures causing haemorrhage extrinsically in unsupported tissues of the face and neck. Treatment in both cases is entirely symptomatic.

## SEASICKNESS TABLETS

49

Surgeon Lieutenant R. E. A. COLES, R.N.

503

Surgeon Lieutenant-Commander P. W. HEAD, R.N.

TENSITS of Hyoscine Hydrobromide, generally known as transients tablets, are supplied to all sea-going ships, whether carrying a doctor, a sick berth rating, or just the Coxswain with his few hours' worth of medical training. The fact that these are 'Transits' and that their distribution is so uncoordinated seems to cause considerable suspicion as to their value. Furthermore, medical officers tend to look at them as minor and better than nothing, and to give the impression that anything that can be bought costs the soldier nothing; prescription or signature cannot have much value anyway (the newer drug Marston, made by Burroughs Wellcome, is an obvious exception to this opinion). Finally, even a good name like "Kwells" cannot compete with the elaborate advertising possible with such signature and closely patented proprietary preparations as "Acemarc," "Dramamine," and the whole series of new anti-histamine derivatives.

A personal interest, not as a sufferer but as a frequent shipmate in small yachts with those who are, prompted one of us (R. E. A. C.) to make some trials to ascertain which drugs do seem to be the most effective. Such trials have been carried out many times before, but there were by then (1934) some new diamonds to turn, Chinn *et al.* (1932) and there were also available from H. M. S. Dyer, Portland, a source of good experimental material. A further trial (P. W. H.), using the same series of preparations but of different plan, was carried out with the same of H. M. S. Dunder (aparting from Portland) whilst on a North Atlantic Trade Commission cruise.

Previous British work (Holling *et al.*, 1934; Gilmer and Hursey, 1931) has pointed to the relatively outstanding efficacy of Hyoscine in preventing seasickness resulting from short duration exposure to rough weather, and indeed most of the American work has not done less than find Hyoscine to be of the same order of efficacy as the newer drugs (Chinn *et al.*, 1932). Further, it has been found (Du Wu, 1932) that whilst both Atropine and Dramamine decrease the central effects of organic carbonates, undisturbed variability which is an indirect measure of inner coordination (the more significant ones in seasickness) is reduced by Atropine only. With the exception of Hyoscine in rural, and accepting the undoubted side-effect of dryness of the mouth, the Royal Naval Personnel Research Committee (R.N.P.R.C.) recommend the use of Hyoscine as the new life raft, with which all ships will constantly be equipped. That it is also probably safer and certainly less expensive than the anti-histamines would not appear to have influenced its choice as the routine service anti-emetic and especially for the infants.

Some American troops, with soldiers in tropicals suffering prolonged exposure to rough weather, used Hyoscin in the dosage recommended by the R.N.P.R.C., and found that side-effects such as blurring of vision and mental disorientation rendered its use impracticable, and that the longer acting of the anti-histamines were under these conditions much more effective. Likewise as the administration of Hyoscin in high and prolonged dosage is rather scarce, though Glaser (1953) found few side-effects in 36 subjects with four-day dosages.

An attempt (R. R. A. C.) to carry out a trial of Hyoscin in the dosage recommended by the R.N.P.R.C. was therefore made. This proved to be on a very small scale largely due to provisosance with normal duties, but the results are nevertheless worth recording, and the trials might well be repeated by any other medical officer serving, albeit who has a little time on his hands.

This trial was carried out on patients accommodated in the sick bay on board H.M.S. *Tiger* during 1955. Nothing more than side-effects were looked for, as in occasional cases only would the drug's actions have been enough for any possible correlation with anti-emetic effect.

#### COMPARISON BETWEEN HYOSCIN AND IBERG NERVE ACTIVITIES

##### (1) R.M.E. *Digby*

The subjects were those officers and ratings who were undergoing training in the practical side of underwater control of anti-submarine warfare. Last, scores of untrained men also included, but their value was mitigated by their availability only in the colder summer months, and by the fact that some of the ratings were too small to be given the full adult dose.

Only those who admitted to being somewhat subject to seasickness were selected. A full explanation of the trials was given to them and on unusually windy days as they left *Digby* to go to their ships they were given their drug in a capsule with a cup of water. Whether the subjects saw the medical officer conducting the trials had, at the time of administration, any knowledge of which drug each subject was given, and the capsules containing them were identical in colour and use. On return to *Digby*, they completed forms giving details of their experiences, with a note on whether conditions seemed unimproved.

On successive days they would receive a different drug, but care was taken to ensure that sequential effects were minimized, i.e. any one drug would not always be followed by one or other drug in particular, but rather by any of the other four according to a prearranged discussion of sequence. The subjects used were of particularly good value for comparison as that they were all at sea at the same time, in the same ship and doing the same work as the same part of the ship, also they were of similar age and intelligence, they had all been sailors for the same length of time, and they had nearly all risen at the same time and rates, the same breakfast. Finally their periods at sea were short (about six hours only in rough water) which allowed for back

adaptations to take place from one day to another, and which very well within the limit of duration of effect of all the drugs concerned.

The drugs used were—Largactil 50 mg., Anacaine (paraldehyde Phenazine derivative) 25 mg. (Last one as placebo: Anacaine has anti-histamine whose other names are Bonamine, Sealeps,<sup>1</sup> Paralene and Madamine) 50 mg., Hyosine Hydrobromide 1 mg. For those subjects who were of considerably smaller stature—50 mg. of Largactil or Anacaine, 25 mg. of Hyosine, or 17 mg. of Anacaine were given. Demerol (methadone Benzoate derivative) was not tested as most authorities agree that it is rather less effective than Anacaine.

Results obtained are tabulated below.

Drug	Number vomiting			Number sweating			Number exposed		
	S.N.	S.C.	Total	S.N.	S.C.	Total	S.N.	S.C.	Total
Largactil	4	4	8	14	4	18	40	4	44
Anacaine	4	0	4	5	4	9	40	3	43
Placebo	4	3	7	6	4	10	40	2	42
Anacaine	7	3	10	12	4	16	40	4	44
Hyosine	3	3	6	4	4	8	40	4	44

S.N. = Nausea prevented. S.C. = Slight Control.

The subjects were divided into groups of five (all on one drug) and have only been included in the "number exposed" if one or more of the group was actually sick on the day concerned.

The protection rates calculated as percentages give the most valuable information and the formula used in calculating them is

$$\% \text{ protection rate} = 100 - \frac{\% \text{ affected in control} - \% \text{ affected in spite of drug}}{\% \text{ affected in control}}$$

<sup>1</sup> *Preventive Rate—Hosney*

Drug	S.N.	S.C.	Combined
Largactil	40	—40	—0
Anacaine	50	100	49
Anacaine	—40	17	18
Hyosine	60	77	76

% of controls vomiting 50 60 50

<sup>2</sup> *Prevention Rate—Nansen*

Drug	S.N.	S.C.	Combined
Largactil	35	35	—70
Anacaine	37.5	10	70
Anacaine	35	14	—49
Hyosine	30	14	57.5

% of controls vomited 40 50 50

The incidence of side-effects on calm days or on days when vomiting was controlled after the drugs had been taken is tabulated below. It should be

realized that the high incidence of these after the phorbol is only partly due to the natural suggestibility of the sales, but it is also due to the fact that the extensive sales for calanex was that no one in each group of five subjects in any one shop on any day refused. Some of the so-called calm days were in fact far from calm, and therefore many of the side-effects recorded are probably early symptoms of motion sickness.

	Completing of the survey Yes				Not completing of sales efforts				No response		
	A/N	S/C	A/N and S/C	A/N and S/C	A/N and S/C	R/R	S/C	R/R and S/C	R/R	S/C	R/R and S/C
Lignocaine	3 (4)	4	15 (14)	71	10 (11)	2	1	21	17	4	21
Verapamil	6 (11)	1	11 (11)	58	14 (10)	2 1		20	20	4	20
Flunarizine	5 (10)	1	6 (10)	34	14 (14)	2 1		17	10	4	20
Diazepam	6 (14)	5 (10)	9 (15)	43	14 (10)	1 1		20 (10)	18	5	20
					14 (10)	2 1					
Hydroxyzine	1 (1)	1 (1)	10 (14)	58	10 (10)	2 1	1 (1)	17	17	2	17

(1) = (1) etc. refer to the number of sales efforts recorded, and for calculations of percentages (at least at 5 points).

(a) = dry mouth      (b) = headache      (c) = no response  
(d) = more drowsy      (e) = sickness      (f) = dizziness  
(g) = laryngeal effect      (h) = bad pain in mouth      (i) = tongue

Our final, but admittedly meagre, piece of information was gained from the Daper trial, namely that there is no link between processes in veridicality (as measured by a post history) and the subject's degree of actual path discrimination (see table opposite).

This can be interpreted as depicting a learning-room contention that 'those with a natural ear are more prone to seasickness'. A natural ear, and good pitch discrimination, may well be largely an acquired characteristic or contribution to any tendency towards seasickness which is presumably inherited.



Each of 3 categories More than 20 g p.c. in both ears	Not subjected to treatment	Per cent	Not not subjected to treatment	Per cent
More than 10 g p.c. in one or both ears	142	62	98	42
Less than 10 g p.c. in one or both ears	47	20.1	66	28
Less than 10 g p.c. in one or both ears	22	9.1	14	6
Total	111	100	178	100

17) *H.M.S. Dundee*

These trials were carried out on grounds to form during a NATO exercise in May 1956. The plan of the trial differed from the earlier one in several important ways with the result that no straightforward addition of their results is possible.

The subjects under comparison were of different ages and sexes; they were working and living in very different parts of the ship; and they had had very unequal periods of sea service immediately prior to the exercise.

Although a considerable proportion of the cases of seasickness were within a few hours of sailing, much of the time in rough water must have been spent well after any effective amount of Hyosine could have remained in the body.

Lastly, most of those unwell on the exercise succumbed, at least in part, to the after effects of over indulgence in lozings straight after the night before.

The results are tabulated below.

	Final No. tested	Final No. well	Per cent and over	Per cent prevalence rate
Placebo	15	4	26	—
Ascorbin	16	7	44	12.5
Ascorbin	14	5	35	10.5
Hyosine	17	3	17	40
Laryngeal	14	7	50	50
Sub-total over 20 g p.c. of those tested with Ascorbin				
Days 10 of month 10 g p.c. of those tested with Hyosine				

These results can be seen to be similar to those of the first trial both as regards protection from vomiting and Hyosine's side effects: the treatment attributed to Ascorbin is however an additional finding.

Personal impressions revealed that there may have been individual preference (or bias) on actual efficacy only for one particular drug or another irrespective of whether or not it gives the highest overall protection rate. Three subjects listed Hyosine ineffective but were quite happy with Ascorbin, while another (an officer) found in Hyosine a "wonder-drug".

As there was no question of the subjects knowing which drug he had taken until after the experiment, there is here some support for the popular idea of "finding which drug really suits me" and less for it being merely a matter of confidence in the drug, which in turn depends on good advertising both by the manufacturers and by doctors. Further trials, in which the subject's

complete co-operation might well be expected, could further elucidate this point and be well within the scope of a despatch or Regia Medical Officer's aid.

#### Forty-eight Hours' Dose, with Hyposcor Hyposcorone

**Subjects.**—Patients allowed up, but confined to the sick bay on being H.H.S. Type. Those with upper respiratory infections, or with obscure diarrhoea and all abdominal cases were excluded. The majority were therefore ambipodic cases, and "tick-transfer" accommodated in the sick bay for passage back to the United Kingdom. The numbers were considerably limited by lack of their availability at some times, and by the pressure of work in the sick bay at other times.

**Dose.**—1 mg. was dependent on three oral "metastasis tablets" at 1500 followed by 1 mg. eight hourly (at 1500, 0900 etc.) for five days. This amounted to 2 mg. on the first day and 1½ on the second. Observations were made before the initial dose and at approximately 1100 and 1700 throughout the trial and twice after the last dose. The observations made included general subjective and objective signs, pupil diameter, distance of nose point from the eye, an esophagus test, and a final questionnaire. A random selection of cases were given Placibo tablets of the same size, shape and colour, but neither patient nor medical officer were informed whether they were having Hyposcor or Placibo and after the trial. Where possible, with the same individual, the tests were repeated in such a way as to give a true cross-over experiment.

**Signs.**—These are tabulated below.

Signs	Hyposcor	Placibo
Drowsy or tired	7 (including 4 objectively so) 11 when drugged	2 (including 1 objectively so) (though on both occasions)
Headache	0	1
Coldness	2 (including 1 when drugged)	1 (drugged)
Mental distress and anxiety	2	—
Dry mouth	2 (including 1 "hangover")	1
Nausea	2 (including 1 "hangover" and 1 when drugged)	1
Intermittent vomiting, colicky distension, burning taste in mouth	0	1 case of each
Diaphoresis and altered rhythm	1 case (aged 45, and slight myocardial lesion, twenty four hours after last dose)	0
First test at mouth	1	0
Total numbers under test	14	5

When questioned after the trials no one admitted that they would not like to take either drug or placebo again.

**Pupil Size.**—Not actually measured, but recorded as small, small average, average, large average, or large. Lighting fairly constant, though tending to be higher at 1100 than at 1700. Increase or decrease in size from that recorded before the first dosage was calculated arithmetically on the system, +1 for an increase from average to large average, -2 for a decrease from average to small, etc. On this system results obtained were:

Time	Hyoscine					Placebo				
	(1) 1700	1800	1900	(2) 1100	1200	(3) 1700	1800	1900	(4) 1100	1200
Sum of units of increase or size	11	4	10	5	6	3	-7	3	1	3
Numbers observed	14	14	15	14	15	5	9	9	5	9
Per cent. increase	79	29	100	56	40	53	-22	33	22	56
	(1) Initial dose at 1700					(2) Initial dose at 1100				

It should be noted that the figures for 1100 are smaller than those for 1700, this presumably is due to the better lighting at 1700. The last per cent. increase is roughly the same in each, and it can be inferred from this that the effect of Hyoscine in this dosage has worn off by ten hours after the last dose. Some mydriasis as the result of this dosage of Hyoscine is apparent, and this is maximal during the first thirty six hours, as can be determined by subtraction of the Placebo figures from the Hyoscine ones.

Time	(1)	1700	1800	1900	(2)	1900	1100
Corrected per cent. increase	44	54	44	14	-10		

**Near Point.**—The distance of this from the eye was readily measured. A slight increase was recorded in those subjects on Placebo dosage and a large increase in those on Hyoscine, but the experimental error was so great that no significance at all can be attached to these results. In the case of one older man (45) the increase of near point was, however, very definite and took some three days to recover. As already recorded it was accompanied by diplopia and mydriasis.

**Encephalogram Test.**—A card with a simple dicker-tower cryptic typed out on it was used for this. Any effect on the subject's mental concentration and ability was measured by the number of letters recognized in three minutes and the number of mistakes made in so doing. The per cent. change is tabulated on page 212.

The conclusion from these figures is that no effect on the speed or accuracy of thought, or of its application to the pen, was detected. The effect of experiment with the test was, however, to exert by the subject's general increase in speed, if not in accuracy, of encephalogram.

Time	Hyson						Fosdo							
	(1)	1500	1800	1700	(2)	1400	1700	(1)	1700	1800	1700	(2)	1400	1700
Mariners tested	14	14	14		13	13		9	9	9		9	9	
Rate of sleeping														
Average % asleep per subject	9.0	16.0	3.0		11.6	17.1		2.2	11.7	16.9		18.3	18.9	
Score														
Sum of scores in number	7	0	-1		-1	-1		3	-4	-1		1	3	

#### RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

The numbers of subjects in these trials were very limited and the results cannot satisfy any criteria of statistical significance. Nevertheless, fresh support is given by them to the generally accepted opinion that for short (eight-hour) duration exposures Hyson or Hydrobromide, taken in dosage equivalent to three "Kwells" or four "Sevedexin tablets" one hour before-hand is the most effective non-drugic drug yet available. For continued dosage of Hyson in an adult 3 tablets (1,000 mg each) taken one hour before going to sea, followed by 1 tablet every six hours for forty-eight hours is recommended. It is fair to state that Hyson does not prevent in itself adaptation to the ship's motion, but it is also true that if this has not occurred after forty-eight hours of rough weather then it is unlikely ever to do so.

It will be noted that the regime recommended above is similar to, but somewhat lighter than, the one recommended by the R.N.F.R.C. for survival at sea in life rafts. The results on Time of the latter regime revealed no limiting side-effects in that, but the difference between sitting in a life-raft on the one hand, and carrying out normal ship-board duties on the other has to be taken into account when prescribing Hyson in forty-eight hour dosage.

If in any one individual Hysonic fails to prevent seasickness, Anacolin should next be tried; and other drugs such as Mefenazone (cyclazole hydrochloride) might well be tried before Anacolin. Motion can be brought without prescription in this country as one Kwells (though dosage of only two (100 mg) tablets of the latter can be advised by an apothecary (E. Gratwicke Hughes Limited) without breaching the Scheduled Drugs Act.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Our thanks are due to May and Baker Limited for supply of the capsules of Anacolin, Luggall, Hysonine and Fosdo, and to British Drug Houses Limited for those containing Anacolin.

Also to Surgeon-Commander J. W. L. Croft R.N.(Retd) and Dr. G. R. Harvey of the Department of Experimental Medicine, Cambridge for their help and advice. Likewise the Commanding Officers, medical and sick berth staff and stateroom companions of R.M. Ships *Gipsy*, *Pyre* and *Dorset* for their co-operation, and Mr. A. A. Harris of Gipsy for the meteorological reports.

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THE ROYAL NAVY MEDICAL CLUB DINNER, 1958

The annual dinner of the Royal Navy Medical Club was held at the Royal Naval College, Greenwich on 21st April 1958.

This year the total number of members and guests was 241 and applications were so numerous that places had to be the result of a ballot.

The Medical Director-General, Surgeon Vice-Admiral Sir Cyril May presided and the principal guest was Vice-Admiral D. F. Holland Martin, Second Sea Lord. In addition to the Directors-General of the Army and Royal Air Force Medical and Dental Services, the official guests included the Chaplain of the Fleet, Vice-Admiral Sir Geoffrey Bernard, Admiral President of the R.N. College and Sir James Paterson Ross, President of the Royal College of Surgeons.

Members who attended included the Lord Evans, Sir Harold Gillies, Sir Harold Graham Hodgson, Professor R. F. Wootton and a large number of civil consultants.

This year, following the sensible resolution of the committee, the speeches were restricted to two only, so that those attending might have a longer time in which to return old acquaintances.

In proposing the toast of "The Guests" the Medical Director-General delivered an admirable speech which was both informative and highly entertaining to his audience. There was no doubt on the minds of the guests, many of whom could refer to numerous past dinners with authority that Admiral May's address was not merely the "highlight of the evening," but also the best speech by a Medical Director-General for many years past.

Replying for "The Guests," Admiral Holland Martin more than held his own against the doctors, who he did not, thank God, change much since he first underwent medical examination at their hands for entry into the Navy. His anecdote which dealt with "The motion of the cross" was indeed a delight.

During the evening, it was announced that the R.N. Medical Club would hold a Cocktail Party, later in the year, which would be attended by members and their ladies.

# THE PASSING OF THE ROYAL NAVAL HOSPITAL, GREAT YARMOUTH



In accordance with the Yarmouth Hospital Transfer Act, 1951, the Royal Naval Hospital, Great Yarmouth, was transferred to the Ministry of Health, as provided in that Act, 1951, thereby severing the link between Great Yarmouth and the Royal Navy which has existed for over a hundred years.

The hospital was originally built by the Admiralty, at a cost of £120,000 between 1899 and 1901, to receive casualties in the war with France. The foundation stone was actually laid in 1899 by Admiral Sir John Douglas, First Admiral of Portsmouth. The architect was a Mr. Pilkington and the builder was Henry Price. It was so used until after the battle of Waterloo, and both naval and military casualties of Waterloo are buried in the hospital square, with a plaque to commemorate the event.

After Waterloo, the hospital was converted into an Army barracks. The first Barrack Master was George William Manby, celebrated for his invention of the rocket life saving apparatus which he developed after witnessing a shipwreck off the coast of Yarmouth.

In 1840, the building became a military hospital again, but in 1854, on the outbreak of war with Russia, the Admiralty claimed it back, and it was

land out for the treatment of naval sick and wounded from Sir Charles Napier's *Balaclava*.

In 1858 the Admiralty leased the building to the War Office for use as a convalescent hospital for casualties from the Indian Mutiny, and a number of wounded from Lucknow and Cawnpore came under the care of Captain James who was then Medical Officer-in-Charge.

In 1863 the Admiralty resumed possession of the hospital and at the same time the 30 acres of land between the hospital and the sea were purchased from the borough for the sum of £100,000, the Admiralty giving the undertaking that this ground would not be used for buildings, but only for purposes of recreation. It is of interest, that immediately before the effective date of the present transfer to the Ministry of Health this land, originally used chiefly but now representing a considerable sea frontage, of a popular holiday resort was conveyed back to the local corporation.

From 1863 onwards the Admiralty used the hospital for the accommodation of patients suffering from chronic mental disorders.

In 1903 following the introduction of the Mental Treatment Act, some doubt arose as to the point of whether this Act gave the Admiralty authority to detain mental patients. The matter was settled by the passage of the Yarmouth Hospital Act 1938 after which the hospital continued to exist under the authority of its own statute. This statute has been repealed by the present Yarmouth Hospital Transfer Act.

During the Second World War the hospital was evacuated to Lancaster and the buildings became H.M.S. *Windsor* the naval headquarters in Great Yarmouth. After the war patients and staff returned and it became customary to admit patients from the Army and R.A.F. as well as those from the Navy.

Externally the hospital has changed little as appearance during the years since it was first built. But internally, modernisation has taken place so that patients can enjoy such amenities as television, up-to-date furnishings and contemporary decorations, all of which, nowadays, play an important part among the therapeutic measures for dealing with mental disease.

At the time of the transfer to the Ministry, the hospital accommodated 131 patients. The majority of these had been cared for since the First World War, but the oldest inhabitant had been a patient in the hospital since 1904.

On the effective date of the transfer, the hospital was re-named St. Nicholas Hospital, Great Yarmouth, and became a unit in No. 7 Group of the East Angles Regional Hospital Board. Through the medium of this transfer the Regional Board will gain 136 new beds for mental patients. So when there is no acute shortage of accommodation in East Angles.

As a condition of the transfer, the whole of the hospital staff was taken over by the Regional Hospital Board, and it is a matter of great satisfaction to both the Admiralty and to the Ministry of Health, that the transfer has been effected without causing unemployment to the case of any individual.

Prior to the transfer of the hospital, the Medical Officer-in-Charge,

accompanied by the Secretary and the Chief Male Nurse, paid an official call on Her Worship the Mayor of Great Yarmouth and handed her a letter from Sir John Long, the Permanent Secretary of the Admiralty. This read: "Madame: I am commanded by my Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty in conference, with the forthcoming transfer of the Royal Naval Hospital, Great Yarmouth, to the Ministry of Health, to express to you their Lordships' regret that the long association of the Naval Service with the Town, and County Borough of Great Yarmouth, which the existence of the Royal Naval Hospital has marked over the last century, is to be brought to a close."

"My Lords are aware of the esteem which the great authorities have entertained in the Royal Naval Hospital and have noted with appreciation the excellent relations which have been so happy a feature of the long co-existence of the hospital and the town."

"My Lords wish me to say that although they regret that the most direct link between the town and the Naval Service will, by the transfer of the hospital, be severed, yet they are sure that the connection between Great Yarmouth and the Royal Navy will continue to be close and most cordial, exemplified as the visits made from time to time by visitors of H.M. Ships, and based upon a common interest and concern with all things maritime."

In addition, the Mayor was presented with a gift from the hospital, useful to the town. This took the form of a silver ash tray, set in a miniature ship's wheel just under one foot in diameter, and round the circumference of which were inscribed on a silver band the words: "Presented by the Royal Naval Hospital in gratitude for the many favours received from the Borough of Great Yarmouth 1868-1938." In reply Her Worship said that she was most touched by the gift, because it was a long time to have been here to people who had need of care. There had been very friendly relations between the town and the hospital. Deeply as the town regretted this severance of a link with the past, the Navy would never be forgotten. "During the war you were kind to us for a while," said the Mayor, "but will you come back and I am delighted to know that you will continue to be with us, though under a different name heading. But that will make no difference to you because your lives of service will go on."





### Reviews

**The Nervous and the Senses.** By JOHN B. WALKER, M.D., M.R.C.S. L.R.C.P. Medical Officer-in-Charge of the Senses Department, Lister Institute, Hygieine, Hygiene, 1933. Pp. 128. Fully illustrated. Published for Messrs. Martin, by H.K. and Bow Limited, London. Price 6s. 6d. (By post 11s. 3d.).

The book, *The Nerve and the Senses*, by John B. Walker, M.D., M.R.C.S., L.R.C.P., is most comprehensive, dealing as it does, with the nature of the sense organs through to the elaboration of the process.

Every student preparing for examinations and reading of this subject, would do well to study with study and consequently in both common symptoms of diseases is treated and in their own nature is fully and sympathetically explained.

The clinical part of the book can only have evolved from work, study and human interest served in the benefit of simple suffering from diseases.

Every earnest student seeking for knowledge on medical science by reading such a well-constructed book.

**Modern Translated Medicine, 1933.** Edited by Dr. Cecil Whitby, F.R.S.E., C.B. Pp. xii + 111 with plates and illustrations. London: Baillière Tindall and Co. Limited. Price 25s. 6d.

Another of these by now well known, *Year Books* series on experience. It covers advances in diagnosis and treatment of common conditions in medicine, surgery and obstetrics. It is edited by Dr. Cecil Whitby and contains thirty-one chapters devoted to being the present practitioner abreast of the latest and changing face of medicine.

From a wide survey of expert articles it is essential to pick out those but that an investigation of diseases will be of particular value and interest to the General Medical Officer and a description of diagnosis is included as it does the clinical and registered specialists and their part. Another extremely useful article is on disease treatment though here it is a pity that it is not as detailed as reading thoroughly as of its problems are presented.

The book is most readable and can be thoroughly recommended.

H. D. C.

**Army Medical Services Yearbook of Contributions.** By Professor F. A. E. Cope, F.R.S. First Volume, 1937. Pp. xxviii + 327. London: H.M. Stationery Office. Price 6s. 6d. 6s.

In this the second volume *Contributions of the activities of the Army Medical Services*, in the Second World War, Professor Cope has again presented us with a thrilling narrative. The period covered extends to the end of 1941, and the outstanding features of the volume is the long and detailed account of the campaign in North Africa, over the general. The campaign of medical work for the Army is shown from the Marston, Long up to the final offensive in Tunisia gives the reader a deep insight into the problems of medical assistance, now which have to be solved for during all phases of planning. The psychological and conditions involved show an array of conditions and the chapter which deals with the Army medical service is most interesting.

Most readers will find attractive the account of the defence and fall of Hong Kong as well as that of Malaya and Singapore. As in the case of our own forces, the author has taken great pains in sifting out the vast number of reports of men who continued to maintain accounts of the events in which they were involved during long years of captivity.

Professor Crew has upon himself a difficult task with marked success, and the students of Medical History will agree his final volume with great satisfaction.

F. L. S. C.

*Annals of Medicine, Diagnostics.* By G. H. Fawcett, Senior M.C., M.D. (Lond.), F.R.C.P. Consultant Physician, United States Hospital, Eighth Edition, 1955. Pp. xiv + 620 with illustrations. London: Baillière, Tindall and Cox. Price 12s. 6d.

The new edition of this excellent book lives up to its past reputation and to the hopes of the reader. There has been thorough revision and it is presented as a useful book as have several. It is a delight to dip into as the "Aid" of every staff. I was most impressed with the hard example of *Electrocardiograms* which will be available in the reader and in the postgraduate not constantly overcast with their interpretation.

D. G. D.

*Leprosy.* By J. M. Allen, M.D., F.R.C.P. Edn. of Westminster Hospital, London, and J. C. Beeson, D.E.B., M.D., The Wellcome Laboratories of Tropical Medicine, London. With a foreword by the Hon. Sir Bede Dicks, M.L.S., D.L.S., F.R.C.S., F.R.S., Consulting Adviser on Leprosy to the Ministry of Health. First Edition, 1955. Pp. xii + 347 with 34 plates. London and Edinburgh: E. & S. Livingston Ltd. Price 40s. 6d.

Devoted by Lambour in 1955 and completed with great taste, established as a superior study by Wolf three years later, and with its selective exposure to the reader by Staff and various General groups in 1958. Leprosy has been extensively into the public eye. More than 50 countries have now been visited, though only 1 has been found in the British Isles.

This book is a very comprehensive study of the whole subject, suitable to physician, pathologist and medical officer of health.

Starting with a general survey of the morphology and physiology of *Mycobacterium leprae*, the following sections on morphology and clinical manifestations with some contrasting diagrams. Detailed chapters follow dealing with the epidemiology, pathology and clinical aspects of "Wet's disease".

The authors emphasize that though leprosy with abnormality in the flow of cells and fluids could be regarded as a disease, it is a disease of the immune system, with some changes in the immune system. Starting as severe cases average 15 per cent. but the response with age is 25 per cent. for those over 40. The remainder shows always these symptoms: functional recovery and the immune stage slowly leads from four to six weeks from the onset.

Most Leprosy cases are treated with 2. curative, has been extensively diagnosed since first recognized in 1955. But in spite of the high infection, it is in fact and the possibly prolonged survival time, the low incidence in human beings shows only a mild degree of infectivity for man. Obviously the cause is no problem in the other forms, but the immune defect in producing immune control reactions, less positive and more frequent pathological symptoms.

Conditions due to other organisms are treated more fully but with sufficient detail while the references are very full and complete.

The chapter on clinical and laboratory diagnosis is especially valuable.

Various forms of treatment are discussed though the conditions are not particularly

converging. It is shown that as general mother satisfaction and autonomy have weak effect sizes, intervention in the very early stage and the most efficacious form of treatment in the available evidence of social development is likely a reason for future research.

The cluster of varietal features includes suitable content of ribbed dentation, improvement of typing both in industrial process and in the field, the solution during both of fixation of chemical formula and personal protection and prophylaxis. Active involvement by substantial sources of improvement of leafy Lycopodium is shown to have been effective in experiments but is not as the generally adopted. It is not clearly why this extensive method has not been followed in more specific

Family Lepidoptera) is a diffuse, wide range of insects all over the world is covered with the dragonflies shown throughout with a most convincing combination of the *Red Lepidoptera* of the literature of the insect in Europe is described by M. C. J. A. Dierckx, 1854, p. 10.

1000 1000 1000

**Table 1** Demographic characteristics of study population

**NOTICE TO CONTRIBUTORS:** Dr. Shigeo Tsutsui, M.D. (p. x + 164) with 118 figures and 15 tables. March, 1977. Published by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science.

**Title** *Phoenix on the Edge: Politics, Power and War in the New South* **By** *John Edgar Hoover* **W. W. Norton** **144 pp.** **Pp.** *1995* **£ 25.95** **London** **Reviewed** *John Edgar Hoover*

<sup>a</sup>The information refers to the results of the following calculations:

[illegible]

## Deaths of the Service

### OBITUARY

**Surgeon Captain W. E. H. BRIDGEMAN, R.N. (Retd.)** died on the 11th April, 1932. Born on the 14th June, 1869, he qualified M.B.C. (Eng.) and L.R.C.P. (Lond.) in 1895 (M.B. in 1894) and entered the Royal Navy as a Surgeon in 1896. Promoted Staff Surgeon in 1904 and Surgeon-Commander in 1910, he was placed on the Retired List at his own request on the 10th September, 1925, with the rank of Surgeon-Captain.

During World War I Surgeon-Captain Bridgeman served at H.M. Ships *Traw*, *Cochrane* and *Ben Alder*.

**Surgeon-Commander G. T. STANLEY, R.N. (Retd.)** died on the 6th April, 1932. Born on the 26th November, 1859, he qualified M.B.C. (Eng.) and L.R.C.P. (Lond.) in 1884 and entered the Royal Navy as a Surgeon in 1889. Promoted Surgeon-Lieutenant-Commander in 1915 and Surgeon-Commander in 1918, he was placed on the Retired List at his own request on the 10th February, 1928.

During World War I Surgeon-Commander Stanley served at Capt. Hospital and on H.M. Ships *Barham* and *Seahorse*.

### HONOURS AND AWARDS

The Medical Director-General of the Royal Australian Navy, Surgeon Rear Admiral I. Lockwood, C.B.E., M.F.C., D.S.C., Q.A.S., has been elected a Fellow of the Royal Australasian College of Physicians for services to medicine.

### *Companions of the Order of the Bath*

Surgeon Rear Admiral R. L. G. FRASER

### *Giltspur Silver Medal*

The Giltspur Medal made for the year 1931 has been awarded to Surgeon-Commander W. E. Crocker, R.N.

### SEVERAL DETAILS

F.R.C.P.—Surgeon Captain M. A. BRIDGEMAN, R.N.

F.R.C.S.—Surgeon-Commander G. WATSON, R.N.

R.N.C.D.C.—Surgeon-Lieutenant D. H. BROWN, R.N.

D.S.—Surgeon-Lieutenant G. CURRIE, R.N. J. B. LAURIE, Surgeon-Captain, R.N.

D.F.M.—Surgeon-Lieutenant-Commander W. E. DUNN, R.N.

### TRANSACTIONS

To Surgeon-Lieutenant-Commander—T. M. M. CONNERY (21312), P. F. TOLL (28132), G. A. B. GAY (21310).

To Surgeon-Lieutenant-Commander (Ds)—J. T. SANDERS (28436).

The following professional selections have been announced for presentation in this 3rd December, 1931:

To Surgeon-Captain—P. B. FRYER, D. F. GARD, R. H. LAURE, G.J.C., G. D. WOOD, O.F.S.

To Surgeon-Commander—T. C. BRYCE, J. M. GIBB, J. RUSSELL, P. A. F. MAXWELL.

To Surgeon-Captain (Ds)—S. E. WILSON.

To Surgeon-Commander (Ds)—G. E. WILSON.

**ROYAL NAVAL VOLUNTEER RESERVE (From JUNE 1935)**

To Surgeon Captain—F. De B. Taitt, F.R.C. and Chap.

To Surgeon Commander—C. F. Cooper, D.C. Lib., W. F. Read.

**ROYAL CANADIAN NAVY RESERVE (From JUNE 1935)**

To Surgeon Captain—J. W. A. DeLaurier, C. M. Public.

**TRANSFERS TO PERMANENT LIST**

Surgeon Lieutenants—T. L. Fothergill, T. T. Phillips, H. D. Ross, J. M. Young.

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**RE-ENTRIES FOR SHORT SERVICE COMMISSION**

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**RETIREMENTS**

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Surgeon Captain T. B. Lynch, R.N.

Surgeon Commanders—J. W. Caswell, R.N., T. A. Trenchard, R.N.

Surgeon Lieutenant-Commander S. D. Wright, R.N.

Surgeon Lieutenants R. M. Butler, R.N.

Surgeon Lieutenants (D.C.) R. Jones, R.N.

**APPOINTMENTS IN THE NAVAL EDUCATING SERVICE**

(Final Medical Training Officer)

Headquarters Recruiting Office, Southampton—Surgeon Captain J. T. Williams, R.N. (Retd.), 1st April 1935 and Surgeon Captain Murray, R.N. (Retd.)

**WARDMASTER OFFICERS**

**HONOURS AND AWARDS**

*Member of the British Empire*

Wardmaster Lieutenant, Commander D. C. Jenkins.

*British Empire Medal*

S.R.C.P.O. D. W. Corry, C/MX 4032, S.R.C.P.O. J. Bucken, C/MX 4443.

**PROMOTIONS**

To Wardmaster Lieutenant-Commander—W. Jones (D.C.M.).

To Wardmaster Lieutenants—H. Butler, D.S.M. (14.30), R. H. Lewis (14.30).

To Acting Wardmaster Sub-Lieutenants—F. Gay (20.4.34), D. J. L. Vaughan (20.4.34).

**RETIREMENTS**

Wardmaster Lieutenants-Commander C. F. Woods, R.C.M.

Wardmaster Lieutenant T. A. Morgan.

QUEEN ALEXANDRA'S ROYAL NAVAL NURSING SERVICE  
HONOURS AND AWARDS

*Commander of the British Empire*

Miss Barbara Mackintosh *R.N.C. M.V.S. Master-in-Chief*

*Royal Red Cross*

Miss N. M. Wiltoughley *A.R.C. Principal Matron*

*Member of the Royal Red Cross*

Miss N. H. Glen *Superintending Nurse*

PROMOTIONS

To Senior Nursing Sister—Miss E. H. Fendley Miss D. J. Langham Miss M. Marshall

ENTRÉE FOR SHORT SERVICE COMMISSION

Miss E. CORHAM Nursing Sister

TRANSFERS TO SHORT SERVICE COMMISSION

Miss F. AUSTIN Miss F. E. HARRIS Miss K. J. BISH Miss M. F. JACK Miss E. M. NORTWELL

## ADMIRALTY FLEET ORDERS—1928

*(This page is prepared for filing.)*

- 141—Insulin—After-care of Personnel Insulin.
- 142—Medical—United States Personnel Attached to R. N. Medical Establishments—Hospitalization, Treatment and Disposal.
- 151—Medical—Sightings—Specimen—Revision of Charges.
- 155—Cooking Staff—New Examination of Food Handlers.
- 156.1—Books—R. N. 235—Infected Health in the Royal Navy—Form and Distribution.
- 157—Sailors—Sick Book Ratings—Specialized Training.
- 158—Medical—Phonetic—Procedure for Prevention of Personnel Connected with Use of Navy Apparatus or Radio after Distress.
- 163—Surgeons and Agents.
- 165—Establishments—R. N. Hospital, Civil Hospitals—Transfer to Ministry of Health.
- 175—Medical—Term "Medical Condition"—Introduction—Regulations Governing Use.
- 178—Medical Treatment of Officers and Ratings when Sick on Shore, on Leave or on Detached Duty—Use of Form S 26 Amended.
- 179—Medical—Labels for Individual Casualty Certificate Sent to Hospital.
- 184—Books—R. N. 145—Medical Research Council War Memorandum No. 4—The Prevention of Hospital Infection of Wounds—Outprint.
- 186—Hospitals and R. N. Medical Establishments—Scale of Charges for Treatment.
- 1775—General Conditions—Protection of Medical etc. Personnel in War—Arrests and Confiscation.
- 1228—Medical—R. N. Medical Bulletin No. 4—Distribution.
- 1261—Sick Book Ratings, Y.A.Ds. and W.B.N.A.—Covering the State Registration Examination.
- 1461—Form—Sick Book Petty Officers' Efficiency Model.
- 1467—Surgeons and Agents.
- 1467—Workbooks—Medical Examination of Transferees from other Government Departments.
- 1491—Medical—O.A.S.—Sighting Standards.
- 1492—Medical Treatment of Officers and Ratings when Sick on Shore, on Leave or on Detached Duty—Use of Form S 26, Amended.
- 1775—Officers—Medical and Dental—Transfer to Personnel List—Pay and Allowances.

## Shavers

**SHAVING OF THE INFANTILE —** ANNEE FRANTZ AND THOMAS CLARK NEWELL. By José Rodolfo Carrillo de Escobedo and Manuel I. Pérez. Hospital de Especialidades de la Secretaría de Salud, México. *Archivos Argent Hist Med*, New York, Medical Encyclopedia Inc., 1959, p 416.

Treatment of a group of 15 newborn infants with a combination of scrotoplast to reduce facial seborrheic dermatitis and unchanged agent resulted in the cure of 13 on a daily use of 10 to 4 per cent. Tarses in which the treatment was successfully well-timed by use of an infrared and another substance. 15 of the 15 patients had psoriasis. 1 had mild psoriasis and another psoriasis disease. The typical dysmorphic syndrome was apparent in 14. Diagnosis was made in every case by microscopical examination. Investigations of C. baciform were classified by direct examination, by stain, and culture. From 1 to the study of 14 of the 15 had been successfully treated with a mixture, scrotoplastone, acetone and other substances. One of the infants had suffered from dermatitis for some years. Treatment of the entire group (with one exception) consisted of a combination of 1.5% scrotoplast and 25% 95% acetone, administered orally every six hours for a period ranging from one to ten days. Clinical improvement was evident in most cases by the second day. By the fifth day characteristic clearing had appeared as gradually observed and improvement of E. baciform was almost in the majority of instances. The use of seven years, standing treated scrotoplastone-acetone for five weeks and was considered good as to convenience, cheap, simple, safe. A total of 15 patients were cured clinically and psychologically. On the basis of their experience, the authors conclude that the combination of scrotoplastone-acetone system has proved highly effective in the treatment of infantile dysmorphic.

*a definite advantage is observed*

## SHAVING STANDARDS FOR SCALPERS WITH DETACHABLE BLADES (S.S. 2011, 1955)

Although scalp shavers with detachable blades have become well established in use, it has been found that slight deformation in the components of the shaver by which blades are attached to handles made by different manufacturers may give rise to difficulty in satisfactory function of the components. The present report of the standard proposed in the report of the Shaving of Heads following representation by a number of experts — it is to ensure that manufacturers have very standardized for each shaver, so that blades and handles of different manufacturers give a satisfactory grip and the shaver provides better and efficiency in use.

The various shapes and sizes of blades have not been specified since they may be open to considerable variation according to the way in which each equipment is put.

British Standard 2011 may be obtained from the BSI, British of the British Standards Institution, 1, White Horse, London, W.1. From B. S. 2011 (Shaving) is designed to give some idea of the



## AN INEXPENSIVE BRITISH MICROFILM READER

One of the most pressing needs in the world is the field of micro-recording is for an inexpensive microfilm reader which will also read microfiche. This need is now met by the V.C. Reader Reader manufactured by Video Methods Limited of Elmbridge, Yorkshire. Costing only £44 it will read microfiche up to a maximum size of 8 cm. wide and may be fitted with a film carrier to take 100 ft. of full-size 16 mm. perforated microfilm. It is a compact machine which takes up when not in use a volume of only 12 in. x 14 in. x 11 in. In order to secure the advantage of simplicity portability, the reader has been kept down to 22 lb.

The film carrier for microfilm running can be removed and refitted very quickly and easily without disturbing film threading. Transport of the film across the gate is effected by a handle mounted on the carrier, and the carrier senses its force whether the film is moving or not. A sensing arrangement stimulates the read bar pressure plates and thus prevents unwanted servicing. The film image is projected on to a white opaque screen on the desk and is approximately 12 in. square. A probe attachment is available which enables the image to be projected by finger control on to the screen at any desired reading angle. Magnification is 16 with a gate size of 2.4 mm. x 2.4 mm. The equipment can be set for use with a wide range, of A.C. voltages and can be connected to D.C. by special conductors.

Microfilm and microfiche scanning are not the only functions of the various types of equipment. It can also be used as a stand-in for slide projection. The whole Reader can be swung into position for horizontal projection with drawings fed through the film carrier or slides held in the standard microfiche slideslides.

The new equipment will be welcomed by those libraries and research workers who have found how the micro-recording can provide a permanent, accurate, less or decrease in of documents and replace bulky material by a small and compact filing system. In these units—the basic Reader costs only £44—the fact that it is so designed that the manufacturer can incorporate further refinements—in the form of other special attachments—in the demand comes for them the present machine for use as microfiche reader or library and slide projector as required. All these factors make the new microfiche reader a most welcome addition to the library's shopping list.

## Editor

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The Editor invites medical officers to send as original papers on professional subjects (novel, personal experience, etc.) items of news and material interest to the medical profession. Papers will be selected from these and published on home and foreign subjects. Notice of births, marriages and deaths are inserted free of charge in subsection.

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### THE EDITOR,

JOURNAL, or THE JOURNAL, NEWS, MEDICAL SERVICE, SERVICE.

R.N. Medical School, Aldershot, Hants.

Journal  
of the  
Royal Naval Medical Service

Editorial

TRIBUTE TO A CENTENARIAN

An unexpected disclosure in this issue Surgeon Rear-Admiral J. J. Dennis C.B. died recently.

Unfortunately, in the course of History, death is not uncommon among retired Naval Medical Officers. Even more unfortunately, it is not uncommon among those brothers on the Active List. But the remarkable fact is that the late Admiral Dennis lived to be 100 years old, an achievement which few of us can hope to equal.

In these days, when so many of our colleagues have the habit of dying in harness, few doctors, on reaching the age of only 50, can be wholly free of an occasional twinge of anxiety about their personal expectations of life. To the stress and strain of a modern medical profession are added the worries of traffic and taxation, to the unpleasant necessity of providing for declining years and dependants are added loans and phobias about physical well-being which, if we speak the truth, are probably unfilled by us all. Even in the moments of unclouded relaxation when he attempts to study current literature as he sits, the poor septuagenarian doctor finds himself reminded of the outrageous propensities of the cigarette which he is smoking. Turning the pages quickly, he soon becomes fixated on the subject of serum cholesterol, so that we can hardly blame him if when his reading is accompanied by a painful post-prandial constipation he tells himself "Is that the cucumber I ate for supper or is my necessary evening at last?" It is, therefore, cheering news to read that a doctor, and a naval one too, who was already aged 50 at a time when the rest of us were toddlers, then went on to complete his century.

But—what we should all like to know is how the gallant Admiral did it! What was his secret? Did he avoid processed foods? Did he eat eggs laid only by chickens reared on sunflower seed? Did he not use butter? Did he smoke? Did he drink? If so, how much or how high?

Unfortunately, although our records tell us much about the thirty-eight years of the Admiral's distinguished Service career, we have no knowledge of

him during his last years. Perhaps this is as well, because, our very ignorance of the officer's intentions in retirement prevents us in part for ourselves, our own mistaken picture of him. Certain of his characteristics we can probably conjecture with a fair degree of accuracy. For instance, we feel that the Admiral must surely have possessed a great sense of humor. Who wouldn't, after driving his pension from the Crown for some forty years? Also, we like to imagine that as others died while he survived, the Admiral developed a highly competitive spirit as the years passed. We like to visualize him, aged 95, eagerly studying the literary columns of *The Times* and noting, with a malicious smile, and secret satisfaction, the demise of young fellows aged a mere 70 or 80. We trust we may be forgiven if we suggest that this incorrigible old warrior might even have chuckled at such a time, while muttering to himself in that Marine fashion:

—Poor devils!

How simply frightful!

How delightful!"

Yes, we are still only wandering in the mists of fantasy as our search for the late Admiral Denham's place of life. What do we learn from the few facts at our disposal? We learn very little which is likely to help, apart from those simple words, which we take the liberty of quoting from the obituary notices of other personalities:— He was unmarried.

Has this statement any unusual significance? This is a question which we are not prepared to answer. Nevertheless, we do venture to suggest that this solitary factor in the long life of our deceased and respected colleague may prove of great moment—namely to at least two of our very Senior British Officers who, happily, are still serving.

## Articles

## EMERGENCY TRANSFUSION IN WAR AND PEACE

BY

Sergeant Rear-Admiral S. G. RAINSFORD

The very title of this paper necessarily poses two distinct yet interdependent problems, but of the two that which concerns peace is by far the more difficult and more important. More important because what can be done on the outbreak of war will to a great extent depend upon the type of organisation established during times of peace.

The advent of nuclear weapons and carpet-bombs, when the majority of casualties will be due to burns, has made it a practical certainty that in any future war reliance will have to be largely placed on the use of a blood substitute such as Dextran rather than on blood or blood products for the prevention of surgical shock. Therefore in planning any National Blood Transfusion Service this fact should be kept in mind.

Nevertheless when blood is essential to save life there is at present no substitute and for this reason every country of the world must, sooner or later, give serious consideration to the establishment of some form of National Blood Transfusion Service.

In planning such a Service many factors must be taken into consideration for what might be suitable for one country may be quite impractical or even expeditious and possibly even dangerous in another.

The most important factors to be considered are:

- (a) The distribution of the population, i.e. is it concentrated or widely dispersed?
- (b) Communications (difficult or easy)
- (c) Climate (hot, cool or cold)
- (d) Availability of trained technicians and skilled personnel.

For example the type of organisation suitable for a small densely populated island like the United Kingdom with its comparatively cool climate and its

endless communications, would be quite unsuitable and unsuitable for a large continental country like India or Africa where the relatively few elements and enormous population the majority of which is distributed over a huge area would produce many great difficulties in the collection, the distribution and the storage of blood or blood products.

In planning any kind of National organization for the treatment of surgical shock we have for all practical purposes a choice of three agents, namely blood, blood plasma, or dextran. Let us therefore consider these three therapeutic agents separately.

### Blood

Blood is potentially highly dangerous, highly perishable and a very expensive therapeutic agent.

It is dangerous because it can be incompatible in the matter of its blood groups. It can be infected with bacteria and even when collected under completely aseptic conditions it can transmit such diseases from donor to patient as malaria, hepatitis, and perhaps other potential diseases or even venereal diseases.

In some climates the greatest danger, however, must be that of bacterial infection. It is almost impossible, even under good conditions to collect a bottle of blood in a manner by which it can be certain that it will be completely sterile. The only factor that makes blood at all safe on this respect is refrigeration: i.e. the rapid cooling after collection to a temperature below which the capacity of pathogenic bacteria to grow, multiply and maintain it at this temperature under all conditions of storage, transport and distribution until the moment arrives for it to be transfused into the patient. For this reason (a) human blood should be collected from donors in air-conditioned rooms for the comfort of the donors and to reduce the likelihood of sweating and to protect the blood from infection.

Blood cannot be frozen and must be maintained at a temperature of not less than 2° C. and not more than 4° C. This necessarily requires a special and very narrow temperature control, an expensive and difficult thing to attain in any climate where the ambient temperature is high. Furthermore it is now known that some bacteria can and do flourish and multiply in blood even at these low temperatures. Fortunately such occurrences are comparatively rare for in most of these cases the macroscopic appearance of blood so infected has not shown these signs usually associated with infected blood. It is therefore now recommended by Zerkin that a sample of blood from every bottle should be examined microscopically before being transfused.

It is vitally necessary to repeat upon the danger of incompatible transfusion since this is so widely recognized and so well understood. The multiplicity of blood groups, however, increases daily, chiefly because blood is being more widely and generally transfused. Every patient who receives a pint of blood becomes a dangerous recipient and a potential source of an

antibody for an as yet undiscovered blood antigen. For this reason the more the population has been transfused with blood the greater becomes the likelihood of an incompatible transfusion and therefore the greater the current necessity to provide such an substitute.

There may have important practical implications.

For example the practice of giving O universal donor blood to a patient under conditions of emergency and where facilities for cross matching do not exist might in this manner become seriously prejudicial.

Thus transfusion, however, saved during times in the firing line during the last world war and even in conditions of peace such a practice, although it should be avoided if at all possible, does become necessary on occasions such as on board ships at sea etc. as in primitive communities.

It is surely, therefore, undesirable to administer blood except where blood is essential to save life.

Fortunately it is only in cases where the blood loss is considerable and a loss of more than 15 litres that it is absolutely necessary to transfuse blood and even then it is not necessary to replace all the blood lost by whole blood since for other agents may be safely used to replace some of it.

In the majority of cases of injury where the haemorrhage has been controlled by first-aid methods and in the majority of cases of internal haemorrhage where bleeding has ceased spontaneously because of the accompanying fall in blood pressure it is the level of blood volume rather than the depletion of the O<sub>2</sub> carrying capacity of the blood that produces shock and death of the patient.

There are many people today who have advanced their cardiovascular system to such an extent that they are getting on a full day's work with a haemoglobin of only 50 per cent of the normal but the rapid loss of half the blood volume would certainly be fatal unless rapidly replaced.

Here the word rapidly must be emphasized for unless the replacement is carried out quickly the patient may pass into that condition known as irreversible shock. It is certainly a truism in this respect to say that a pint of time may very well and here a pint of Dextran given quickly may be worth many pints of blood if delay is necessary to allow time for the blood to be cross matched or examined serologically.

Blood volume of course may be seriously reduced by other than haemorrhage, namely by the great loss of plasma as occurs by burns, and the rapid loss following thermal injuries or by severe dehydration which follows continuous vomiting and diarrhoea, as for example in cholera. In such cases the administration of blood is often unnecessary and may in fact be contra-indicated.

Where blood is not absolutely necessary for restoring blood volume there is a choice of employing either a blood product, such as plasma, or of using a blood substitute, such as Dextran.

Let us now therefore consider these two therapeutic agents.

## Plasma

(1) It is considered by most factors to be a natural fluid and therefore might be thought preferable to Dextran. Plasma as processed, however, especially as a dried product is by no means a natural substance. In the first place it is greatly diluted, i.e. 1 part to 3 with acid citrate solution (acid sodium citrate 2½ per cent to 3 per cent glucose solution approximately 600 m.e. to 300 m.e. of plasma being added).

Secondly the plasma has usually been stored at about 4° C. for a month in contact with the red blood cells before it is separated. It is therefore by no means fresh plasma when it is processed.

(2) It contains in addition to plasma protein such factors as fibrinogen, fibrinogen, and hemoclastic globulin, etc., all of which seem to be to coagulate and therefore tend to prevent haemorrhage. Nevertheless their value in preventing haemorrhage in the presence of large amounts of citrate and the fact that the plasma is usually so aged when processed must be somewhat problematical.

(3) It contains antibodies. However it is not usually given because of this property and their nature and amount are of course usually unknown. Some antibodies present may actually be harmful such as hemolytic and leucocidal.

(4) Every batch of plasma must be regarded as potentially sero-specific. The quality of promoting homologous serum reaction is generally regarded as being due to a virus present in the plasma. Most viruses are best preserved by freezing and drying, the very method used for preserving plasma protein. It is therefore possible that other virus substances could be transmitted by plasma transfusions such as smallpox to countries where this is endemic like India and Africa.

The danger of transmitting homologous serum reaction by plasma transfusions is said to have been greatly reduced but not abolished by resorting to small plasma pools. This procedure itself, however, may bring about other undesirable qualities (see later). Furthermore, where large transfusions of small pool plasma have to be given, i.e. 12 hours cases, the danger of homologous serum reaction is still as great as ever.

(5) Plasma recovered from stored blood may have and often does have an undeniably high content of potassium. This possibility alone is a contra-indication to its use in many clinical conditions where a transfusion of a blood volume equivalent is indicated.

(6) The total protein value of plasma is by no means constant and varies as much as 3-5 per cent from pool to pool.

(7) Its keeping qualities are extremely poor and therefore to be processed it must be dried and bottled in some or under dry nitrogen. Even as such it is by no means stable and it is considered to have a life of not more than three years.

The fact that it has to be dried and thereby looses of fluid, usually 3 per



can. Diverse interest, supplied with it for its reconstruction, before we raise many problems for the Armed Forces, is the fact, in Army, Navy or Air Force where transport and storage space are extremely limited and at a premium. In addition there is the problem that it can never be decided whether the material is fit for use until after the emergency requiring it has struck.

(8) Dried plasma requires special conditions of storage for it must be kept cool and protected from sunlight. Conditions which may be difficult in some countries.

(9) Small pool plasma, owing to the method by which it is prepared, may possess undesirable qualities not usually found when large pools are processed.

It is neither an economical nor practical proposition to filter small plasma pools. Research must therefore be placed as far as clarity is concerned as bacteriological tests and low temperature storage until drying is complete. Now is it practical to test each small pool for pyrogenic total protein or nitrogen titre as is usual with large pools.

(10) Plasma, whether liquid or dried, is a very expensive product. In the first place it must be separated and processed in a cold room, i.e. at a temperature of about 2-4°C. an expensive room staff.

It must be collected in the most rapid bacteriological manner after separation and even when the blood and plasma is separated and manipulated under these special and expensive conditions the wastage due to bacteriological contamination is extremely high.

#### DEFERRA

(1) Although not a natural fluid it is (in all probability) completely broken down at the body to glucose, or is excreted.

(2) It will maintain the collagen protein of the blood quite as well as plasma protein for at least twenty-four hours.

(3) It has no buffering capacity.

(4) It contains no coagulable protein factors.

(5) It is, however, extremely stable and will keep for years under almost any conditions of storage.

(6) Its consistency is known and constant.

(7) It is immediately available for use and does not require to be manipulated in any way before being administered.

(8) It requires half the storage space and transport required for dried plasma and its reconstituting fluid. It can, therefore, be stockpiled more easily and with more confidence than plasma.

(9) It is appropriate.

(10) It can be produced rapidly in unlimited quantities at times of emergency.

(11) It is much cheaper to produce than plasma and is without its dangers.

(12) It has been proved to be a satisfactory blood volume expander by the use of large quantities over a long period.

(a) More than 300,000 bottles used in Sweden since 1946. For many years usage has been constant at over 45,000 bottles per annum.

(b) Regularly used in Holland since 1930.

(c) Approximately 500,000 bottles used in Great Britain since 1940.

It will be seen therefore that in continental countries with a continental climate such as for example India, the use of blood and blood products involves both difficulties and dangers and will be very expensive.

For blood must be collected under cool conditions and if it is to be stored with safety in those proximity to the refrigerator.

If it is to be processed or manipulated in any way this must be done in a cold room at a temperature of not more than 4°C and not less than 2°C.

If blood or blood products have to be distributed this must be done in heavily thermally insulated containers which because of weight and space will make transport by road, rail or air most difficult.

It can be transfused without the dangers attached to blood products which should be reserved for those special cases who require human protein in some form. For example the hypoproteinaemics who will require plasma protein, the athrombopoenics who require fibrinogen, the purpurs who require platelets, the leukaemias who require anti-leukaemic globulin and those cases that require thrombin, prothrombin or even plasma globulin.

Most of these materials however must be processed from fresh blood. The plasma obtained from unexposed blood from the bank is usually poor in most of the labile anti-coagulation factors.

Every Blood Transfusion Centre therefore should have the equipment necessary for processing these products from fresh blood. The demands, however, for these special products are unlikely to be very great in comparison with the amount of whole blood and Dextran that will be necessary for the treatment of surgical shock.

It is suggested therefore that the concepts upon which a transfusion system should be planned for large continental countries where the climate on the whole is hot should be as follows:

(1) The wholesale use of blood should be discouraged and blood should be employed only where blood is essential in order to save life.

(2) When a whole blood transfusion is essential fresh blood transfusions should be employed as much as possible rather than use stored blood from a bank. Blood keeps indefinitely in the donor and storage does nothing. Blood in a bottle will keep only a few weeks and storage in a hot climate is very expensive. Again it is often easier to transport a donor to the patient than a bottle of blood.

(3) As a blood volume expander full volume can be placed as Dextran and it should be made freely available. It can be stored under the cheapest possible conditions. It requires no protection from heat or sunlight and is therefore the safest and most economical product to distribute.

Banks of Dextran can be laid down at a minimum cost in the most outlandish places where it can be available at a moment's notice.

(3) Blood transfusion centres for economical and practical reasons should be confined to the big cities with large concentrated populations, where donor pools can be relatively easily organized and established in close proximity to the larger hospitals. They should be equipped with air-conditioned rooms where the donors can be bled in comfort and cold rooms where blood can be stored and blood products processed.

(4) The greatest economy should be practised in the use of whole blood and blood products: both are dispenses and expensive but both may be essential to save life in special cases.

Even in severe cases of hemorrhage an early Dextran transfusion will often support a patient until blood has arrived and been cross matched and perhaps microscopically examined before it can be given. In that way the danger of a patient passing into a condition of irreversible shock may be prevented and the necessity of giving a very large transfusion of blood avoided.

Now let us consider how a service developed upon such principles will stand up to the stresses and strains of modern warfare.

The first line of defence against the atom bomb is a dispersal of all but key personnel from target areas. This of course means the evacuation of the large towns and cities and will of course entail the scattering far and wide of all members of the organized blood donor pools. Even therefore if it is possible for the blood transfusion centres to continue to operate, donors and therefore blood will be an extremely short supply just at a time when it may be most required.

However, the effect of modern weapons, that is the atom bomb and the nuclear bomb, is such that the great majority of casualties will be from burns requiring transfusion with Dextran rather than blood.

There again the employment of armoured vehicles, aircraft carriers, and jet planes all carry highly inflammable fuel indicates that it is burn casualties on a large scale that must be feared, far, rather than those wounded by conventional weapons.

Provided that Dextran is already in production it is a comparatively simple operation to boost its supply, make more and quicker to do than to try and increase the supply of blood.

If however, Dextran is to be used on a very large scale as even it is stated that the medical and nursing professions should be fully versed in its clinical applications and have full confidence in its use.

It is important therefore to encourage its use in times of peace in the Health services, the fighting forces and the Civil Defence organizations. They must learn to rely upon it for otherwise they will be forced to reorganise the whole of their supply arrangements in war when it is very likely to be the only material freely available for the treatment of surgical shock.

## HEAT ILLNESS

BY

Sergeant Commander F. P. HARR, R.N.

INCARCERATION by work at high temperatures is usually preventable, because none or all of the causes—excessive work, hard work, unsuitable clothing, dehydration and deleterious conditions of the skin—can either be controlled within acceptable limits or avoided altogether.

For many tasks the body is only about 20 per cent mechanically efficient, because some or all of the energy evolved by metabolism is expended in the form of heat. The harder a man works the more heat he must eliminate by convection, radiation or conduction or water, so that his body temperature rises. But when these paths for heat loss are inadequate, or when the temperature of the air and surroundings exceed the skin temperature so that the direction of heat flow is reversed, he must rely on evaporative cooling. This can only take place if he is sweating, if the surrounding air is not saturated and if the vapour pressure of the air is less than the vapour pressure at the surface of his skin. Sweat contains salt, and salt and water deprivation will result unless heavy sweat losses are made good.

Evaporative cooling and convective cooling or heating, depending on whether the air temperature is less or greater than the skin temperature, are accelerated by brisk air currents and by wearing the movements. They are retarded by reducing air movement and by increasing the weight, coverage, impermeability or number of layers of clothing. Clothing protects against the absorption of radiant heat from the sun or from indoor surroundings which are warmer than the body, but interference with the evaporation of sweat may offset the beneficial effect. Dark clothing absorbs more radiant heat than white clothing. The skin, whereas the colour clothes reflect heat like a black body. Shade protects against solar radiation and reduces sweating, but it does not interfere with evaporative cooling. It became fashionable during World War II to deny the value of the time-honoured sun helmet. In most instances it was cumbersome, unhelpful and unnecessary, but the experimental evidence and practical experience both support the use of ventilated or insulated headgear with a broad brim when really severe solar radiation must be endured for long periods, as for example on an open bridge in the Red Sea or the Persian Gulf although not everyone will agree with this.

Others will dislike wearing this type of headgear even though it may confer some benefit, or it may be inconvenient for the job at hand.

A reduced ability to sweat following, possibly heat, may aggravate fatigue or predispose to heat intolerance, and so may suppression of sweating from other causes. Again workers know the output of sweat and cooling heat tolerance, and the relatively rare deformities or absence of sweat glands should not be forgotten. There is no evidence that a well-trained man protects a man against excessive warming; but it will help him to work stopped in the shade in the open without becoming severely exhausted so that he can join the benefit of increased evaporative cooling.

Lack of acclimatization is important during the first few weeks when a man commences to work in a warm atmosphere, and particularly during the first few days. It is not always easy to dissociate the effect of training, or of learning to live in a warm climate from acclimatization, and unacclimatized new recruits are likely to succumb before unacclimatized but well-trained veterans or marines.

Any condition which reduces a man's physical fitness for work, such as a bout of gastro-enteritis, an excess of alcohol, lack of sleep or emotional fatigue increases the likelihood that he will succumb in an unusually warm environment.

#### Incidence

The official records rarely indicate the true incidence of heat illness in the Armed Forces, for acclimatization is often a transient effect in healthy adult men; but they do provide a useful guide to the areas where the problem is most serious. Marras (1956) describes how during the Japanese campaign in India during the hot summer of 1942-1943 nine were admitted to Army hospitals suffering from the effects of heat, and 135 died. Salt and water deprivation (heat exhaustion) accounted for 1,660 cases and 60 deaths, and overexertion from exertion of wearing their clothes for only 293 cases but for 98 deaths.

Heat exhaustion was also prominent as a cause of heat intolerance in the Royal Navy during World War II. When a large part of the Fleet was moved from temperate to tropical waters in 1944 for the campaign against the Japanese the over incidence for the combined sick and attending lists as reported is due to a special questionnaire from the Fleet Medical Officer was 0.42 per 100 man-years—a rate of about 50 per 1,000 per year (Allen, 1948). It is obvious that unexpected and unexpected heat illness and a greater lowering of working efficiency had a far more serious impact than even the high figure suggests. The majority of the victims were men working in the machinery spaces.

In three days all cases of incapacitating heat illness were reported to the Medical Officer's Quarterly Journal under 'heat stroke'. The incidence during the war years for the Royal Naval Forces, as derived from these Journals, was as follows:

	Cases	Cases per 1000	Deaths
1940	121	0.91	2
1941	271	0.25	0
1942	429	1.31	2
1943	146	0.95	0
1944	134	0.66	1
1945	217	0.72	0
1946	184	1.00	0

There is little doubt, however, that these figures grossly underestimate the true incidence: for the healthy young soldier recovers so quickly once he is removed from a hot environment to a cool one and is given a cool drink that no entry continues; the medical officers may not even see him, or, if he does, he is so well on his way to recovery that there is hardly any justification for a report to the Journal.

During World War II the total annual admission rate per 1000 per year in the United States Navy and Marine Corps never exceeded 0.5 within the Army it ranged upwards from 0.4-1.2 and exceeded 20 in the Middle East in 1943 (Dillon 1955). Between 1942 and 1951 the Army incidence for heat exhaustion was approximately ten times that for heat stroke, but deaths due to heat stroke were about five times as numerous as deaths due to heat exhaustion which underlines the need for prompt and correct treatment when the cardinal signs—failure of sweating and polyuria—are followed by a rapidly rising temperature. The peacetime incidence in the United States Army which certainly enough is highest in the training camps, places even greater emphasis on heat exhaustion. Out of 1384 cases of heat illness reported from 9 camps in 1954 there were only 28 cases of heat stroke with one death. The others were all due to heat exhaustion (Hook 1955).

It is notable that 'subacute heat exhaustion'—the syndrome of 'physical and mental exhaustion aggravated by exposure to heat and physical exertion, polyuria and frequency of micturition, reduction or cessation of sweating excepting mostly on the face, and a dry and warm skin with a preceding history of possibly heat and often associated to chloride deficiency'—described by Mink and Plummer (1930) and reported earlier from Iraq by Laidlaw and his colleagues (1940) was not reported in the Navy during the War even from the Eastern Fleet where probably heat as at all stages was able at all times. Perhaps this was because the condition was not being looked for, but certainly of a number of carefully documented accounts by conscientious observers which fail to mention it (Mink and Plummer) that this is the whole explanation. Although milder conditions have been widely reported elsewhere, it would seem that this is one of the most forms of heat illness which is provoked by unusual combinations of climatic conditions and perhaps hard work, which are not usually encountered between-duties in ships. It may be that the combination of a very hot humid atmosphere with prolonged exposure to strong sunlight was a precipitating factor on shore. On the other hand, perhaps the condition has occurred on ships and has not been recognized.

In peacetime acute heat illness is scarcely encountered less frequently than

is wartime because of the less strenuous operational conditions, careful planning of cruises, the smaller personnel complements, the lack of "black out" and damage control restrictions on ventilation and the reduced amount of cleaning. The cost rates per thousand for the recuperating heat illnesses (M 981.5 in M 981.3 inclusion, listed as earlier years under "heat stroke") for 1954, 1955 and 1956 were only 0.1, 0.2 and 0.2 respectively.

While these diseases are primarily encountered in the Navy in war and at sea in warm climates, the same measures to be taken to prevent their occurrence and the loss of efficiency which always accompanies them, such as the provision of an acceptable thermal environment, adequate quantity of hot and cooled water machines and the maintenance staff to keep them working, must be planned and put into effect in time of peace if they are to be available when hostilities open. The Naval Medical Service has an important role to play in drawing attention to stations where untidy warm conditions are affecting health and efficiency adversely, for these problems are nearly always soluble in the design of new construction ships, and much can be done to improve unsatisfactory conditions in those already built.

#### NOMENCLATURE

The diversity of usage in common usage for describing acute heat diseases does not admit a clear understanding of the problem. Acute heat incapacitation, as it is most frequently observed, is due to the excessive and varied effects of a rising body temperature, with or without dehydration or both, fragmented insufficiently of the mechanism—caused by peripheral vasoconstriction, pooling of blood in dependent extremities, dehydration or the vascular collapse. These are straightforward and related manifestations of the body's inability to adapt to an environment which is too warm. They should not be regarded as separate clinical entities. When period or complete failure of sweating complicates this relatively simple picture, the essential background is the same, although the emphasis in management may be different. Thus in their wartime study at Shadish, Ludell, Wainline and Haskins (1945) observed that men with uncomplicated mild deficiency dehydration (type I heat exhaustion), heat exhaustion with diminished sweating (type II heat exhaustion) or heat hyperpyrexia were usually all dehydrated, but whereas the first group were dehydrated, dehydration was not prominent in the men who did not sweat, whilst most of the hyperpyrexial cases were probably overhydrated before they lost consciousness.

There is much to be said in favour of over simplifying the nomenclature of the various syndromes seen when men are incapacitated in an excessively warm environment by describing them all—whether conditions hyperpyrexial, dehydrated, dehydrated, anhydrotic, victims of simple syncope or merely excessively fatigued—as "acute heat incapacitation," and treating each case on its clinical merits as one does with a case of cardiac failure. The present nomenclature can, however, not be discarded, but medical officers will adhere to the recommendations of the International Statistical Classification of the World Health Organization





Table II

Table 11				
		International <sup>a</sup> Statistical Classification No.	Modified for Presentation for Discussion of Diseases	
Heat stroke	Following substance abuse: chronic or suspected	M 911.0	}	M 911.8
Heat hyperthermia		M 911.24		
Heat cramps		M 911.2		M 911.2
Heat exhaustion		M 911.24		
1. Anhidrosis				M 911.2 M 911.7
2. Salt deficiency (including heat syncope)		M 911.36		
3. Unqualified heatstroke: water deficiency, salt or fluid electrolyte imbalance, reduced heat, substance and heat syncope		M 911.36		M 911.3
Sunken		M 911.4		M 911.4
Profusely hot		M 911.4		M 911.4
Anhidrosis		M 911.4		M 911.4
Heat stroke: massive (including chronic heat stroke: massive effects of heat stroke: mild stroke: massive effects: mild heat stroke)		M 911.4		M 911.4 M 911.7
Other heat effects including heat stroke		M 911.4		M 911.4

<sup>a</sup>In accordance with the rules of the Bureau of the International Statistical Classification of Diseases, Injuries, and Causes of Death relating to heat stroke (1959, 1967, 1989, 1989).

all consciousness or even loss of life may occur before the body temperature rises to 104 F.<sup>1</sup> For a diagnosis to depend primarily on whether or not a patient loses consciousness or not may seem to be a highly arbitrary approach for clinicians to accept.

The new term employed here for the integrated neuro-psychiatric or pseudo-psychiatric disorders encountered amongst patients working under continuously warm conditions—the "heat neuronal instability"—may not be particularly acceptable to Service codes. It might be considered unfair to stigmatize a man as neurotic because he has had the misfortune to live and work in an unhealthily warm environment for many months on end, and, as a result of this, has repeatedly become more disturbed in his work and unstable with his associates than some of his companions who may have been exposed to these conditions for a very much shorter period, particularly when he recovers, apparently completely, when he returns to a cooler climate on shore or to a more temperate climate. On the other hand, it is equally unreasonable to blame the psychiatric illness of a man who is psychologically unstable, and to whom the heat is just one more of life's aggravations, primarily on the climate, for the weakness lies in the man rather than in the circumstances in which he has to work, and such individuals should not be exposed to the added stress of work under existing warm conditions nor should they be sent to the tropics. Alternative terms "tropical fatigue" (Munro, 1949) or "heat chronic fatigue" (Ellis, 1951, 1955), for it also occurs in the north and south of the tropical latitude, have been suggested for cases falling within the former category. For the latter cases the term "tropical" or "heat

climate<sup>2</sup> scenarios, if indeed it is desirable to apply a climatic qualification to a conventional neuro-psychiatric diagnosis, would seem to cover most of the situations which are encountered, although Cameron (1949) has rightly drawn attention to the fact that a significant proportion of these cases, amounting to 7 per cent in his usual tropical temperature, present predominantly psychotic features rather than those of a neuritis.

However, the new classification does constitute a very useful basis for further consideration and Lusholt, Gellner, De La Place and Margnath (1958) were able to use it in classifying cases encountered during a recent survey of heat stress in Persian Gulf oil tankers. Although they commented that cases of heat cramps should be included with the other cases of salt and/or water deficiency under heat exhaustion, and were also doubtful of the advisability of accepting an arbitrary body temperature of 105° F. for separating cases from heat hyperpyrexia from those due to other causes.

A simplified working classification (Table III) such as that proposed recently by Lucile (1957) has many attractions from a military viewpoint. It is entirely consistent with the revision of Wotter and Horst and almost equally consistent with the current classification. Lucile's procedure seems should be read by all those who are interested in the subject.

TABLE III

A. Skin disorders	(1) Sunburn
	(2) Prickly heat
B. Circulatory disorders	(3) Heat stroke
	(4) Heat exhaustion
C. Disorders of water and electrolyte metabolism	(5) Heat cramps
	(6) Heat syncope
D. Effects of heat exposure	(7) Hyperpyrexia

To meet the Navy's needs, the writer would prefer to set the uncomplicated skin disorders (A) removed from this list as well as the circulatory conditions. The following diagnoses cover most of the requirements of the naval medical officer on shore or afloat in dealing with individuals who are incapacitated by work in a hot environment:

<sup>1</sup> I.C. No. (H57)

W 910.0	Heat hyperpyrexia (heat stroke)
W 910.1	Heat exhaustion (salt and/or water deficiency states including heat cramps)
W 910.2	Exhaustion, heat
W 910.3	Heat syncope (includes loss of consciousness with changes in posture whilst standing and for a prolonged period on parade or on working on stationary work, irrespective of whether and in hot surroundings)
W 910.4	Other "shaking heat, rigors of the heat"
W 910.5	Heat stroke (hyperpyrexia) (rigors in the absence of convulsions) (hyperpyrexia) (heat stroke)

<sup>2</sup> I.C. (H57)—International Statistical Classification—W 910 (H57)

For the time being it is recommended that the report on the Health of the Navy will be based on the WHO International Standard Classification (1955/1957), and medical officers are to adhere to this classification in reporting cases of heat illness. If cases of anhydrotic heat exhaustion are observed they should be reported under Serial 88.3 for the present (see 714.6) and should be described as dried water (Roman).

#### PREVENTION

Provided young and healthy men are removed promptly from a water environment to a cool place where they spend the heat of their endurance and their water and salt requirements are met adequately they will recover rapidly. If there is delay irreversible changes, due to a high body temperature or dehydration, may occur in the central nervous system and elsewhere, and they may sustain more lasting damage or fatal injury.

Control of the thermal factors and work level and the correction of water and salt deficiencies to compensate for heavy sweating when adequate control is not possible will prevent incapacitation or water or electrolyte

#### CONTROL OF THE THERMAL ENVIRONMENT

It has been said that the effects of working at high temperatures in the tropics are similar to the effects observed on men doing the same kind of work in temperate climates provided men are trained to work in the heat. Thus the same preventive measures probably apply for acclimatized men whatever the geographical situation. Those who are unfit, older men and men who are overweight may succumb first. But even when differences such as these are eliminated and levels of acclimatization and training are equalized or by repeated daily exposures there are still marked differences in individual reactions which will cause one man to collapse in a climate where one tolerant man can work. It is thus necessary to apply very considerable safety factors in defining permissible levels of exertion for given working situations.

Although there is adequate evidence from the tropics and temperate latitudes that lightly clad young men who are well acclimatized to high temperatures can do light or moderately heavy work for a few hours when the wet-bulb temperature or the effective temperature is 80 °F or even higher, no student ignores Haldane's (1935) classical observations on less highly trained men recorded in England over fifty years ago that in still and warm or continuous hard work became impracticable when the wet-bulb temperature exceeds 70 °F and that beyond 68 °F it becomes impossible for ordinary persons even to stay for long periods in such an although pressure may increase to some extent the limit which can be tolerated. White (1947) agrees that deaths due to heat occurred not infrequently in the United States Armed Forces between 1942 and 1944 when the wet-bulb temperature was in the twenties. She commented that fatalities associated with heavy exercise occur at relatively low temperatures when the total heat stress is

commonly understood." United States Army (1950) and Navy (1954) regulations advise that a weather-up be kept for constant when the wet-bulb temperature exceeds 79° F. It is well to remember, however, that in the tropics most acclimated persons who are appropriately clad will find this an ideally comfortable temperature for light or sedentary activities. The United States Marine Corps (1954) advises rest when the wet-bulb temperature exceeds 81° F with an air temperature of 90° F or 75° F with an air temperature of 100° F (each corresponds to a normal effective temperature of about 54° F, when the average air speed is 36 ft/min.)

The most recent United States Department of Defense instruction, Technical Bulletin (Medical) 173 (1957), suggests that for increasing the thermal environment out of doors on ships a new index—also devised by Taylor—who with Houghton, conceived the "effective temperature" concept thirty years ago—the "WBGT index"—should be computed from the sum of "0.7 maximum wet-bulb temperature (exposed to wind and sun) + 0.3 black globe thermometer temperature (in the sun) + 0.1 dry bulb temperature (in the shade)." It is recommended that when the WBGT index exceeds 80° F, rest is necessary to protect unacclimated personnel. When the "WBGT" reaches 85° F, unacclimated personnel should be suspended in unacclimated personnel during the first two weeks of training; that a reduced scale of training activity is permitted after the second week of training. Outdoor training in the sun is to be avoided when the WBGT exceeds 85° F. All physical training is to be suspended when the WBGT reaches 90° F. On the other hand, hardened personnel after having been acclimated are permitted to carry on limited activity when the WBGT is between 85-90° F for periods not exceeding one hour a day. This index has not yet been tested in England, and it has not been compared with Bedford's corrected effective temperature by an American sponsor, which one would expect to give much the same sort of result over the temperature ranges specified in the above recommendations,<sup>1</sup> but it has been fairly thoroughly tested out otherwise during the last three summers at United States Marine Corps training camps in the United States and is now recommended for general use under these conditions by the United States Armed Forces.

In British workshops in the tropics the effective temperature for "acclimated" efficient temperature of radiant heat in a factory should be kept below 70° F if possible and should not exceed 80° F. If ventilation and air-cooling arrangements permit warmer conditions than these corresponding to an effective temperature of 84° F, which also correspond approximately to a PMV value of rather less than 1 (Baker, 1958, see page 153 of this Journal), for more than an hour or so reduced efficiency must be accepted, and relatively small additions to the heat load, work load, clothing or duration of exposure, may turn a reasonably pleasant into one which is most certainly unpleasant.

<sup>1</sup> It has been confirmed since this paper was written that Bedford's effective temperature (Bedford, 1944), and the "WBGT" index share much the same predictive accuracy (J. Minard, personal communication, 1949): if anything, the former is rather more accurate than is the present one in the field.

## WATER AND SALT REQUIREMENTS

The known differences men meet under the same conditions vary, and so do their water requirements. There is no such thing as a standard water ration except for logistic planning. It has been suggested as a guide that men should be taught to drink enough to produce 1½ pints of urine per day, but at sea in the tropics, sweat loss, particularly those who are unacclimatized, do not excrete as much urine as this although apparently they remain in reasonable health. Some are probably dehydrated at the subclinical level. But it is also possible that others can adapt somewhat to a lower daily output of urine without suffering any ill effects, although information on this is incomplete.

In very warm atmospheres cool water (70°F) is more palatable than tepid water, it is more effective in controlling body temperature and men will drink more of it. The amount of cool water which can be taken with comfort is related directly to the amount men sweat, inversely to the amount their body temperatures will rise, and directly to the time for which they can survive very warm conditions. Heavily chlorinated water is less palatable than water which does not taste of chlorine and many men will not drink all they require if water distillation is involved. Limited water supplies may be conserved by reducing sweating, by such measures as resting in the shade, avoiding heavy work in the heat of the day, and by wearing clothing with non-potable water or by drinking small quantities frequently rather than larger amounts at less frequent intervals.

As the salt content of water also varies (31-500 per cent) the salt requirements of different men differ considerably. A man must learn by experience what he needs. Almost as bad a headache as a concentrated urine is a useful early sign of salt deficiency. Too much salt is a bad thing as well as too little and gives rise to malaise, gurgling and flatulence. Unless men are sweating continuously or repeatedly they do not require extra salt, and most ordinary workers on shore in the tropics do not need supplements unless they take strenuous exercise. Extra salt in the cooking and in the plant at meal times, coupled with usual preparations will meet most requirements, and the salt content of food can be doubled without affecting its palatability. When men are sweating heavily for long periods each day modest supplements to the dietary intake may be necessary and are particularly advisable when men are incompletely acclimatized. A salt intake of 10 grams per day<sup>1</sup> is considered not unreasonable for experienced personnel in the Persian Gulf during the hot summer months, but it is important that the fluid intake should also be generous if the salt intake is increased. In recent experiments in very high temperatures in Singapore a ration of 1 gramme of salt per litre of water lost was adequate when unacclimatized men worked in a very warm atmosphere for only four hours each day, but it was insufficient when the same experimental men were exposed after a four-hour run. Many people find unsalted salt which is unpalatable. Reliable preparations of sugar and water-coated tablets are

<sup>1</sup>Adjusted for the average man by the addition of 1 additional gramme of salt to the fluid intake.

collected will probably be many and not taken a one time. Salt may go 1 per cent by mass acceptable to most people who need it, and is much more acceptable if it is cooked rather than taped or taken raw.

The point is usually a good guide to the amount of salt a person needs. After sweating heavily in a game of golf, sports racket or football in a warm climate a glass of salt and water can be taken. Almost salt water, which would be disgusting at other times. But some people dislike salt and never take it if they can avoid it. Others are very sparse when it comes, especially when the weather is hot or the sea is rough but they will sweat profusely. A sudden loss of diaphoresis and vomiting or unexpectedly excessive physical effort may disturb the normal electrolyte balance. It is in these circumstances if the weather suddenly becomes sultry or more humid or the wind falls, that some eat salt rationally without ill effects.

The probability is that the man will be taken by enthusiasm in the Services nowadays than is strictly necessary but some still do not take enough and one should always be on the lookout for salt depletion. For the symptoms can be confused and confused delay other more everyday disorders. Once the diagnosis is suspected the clinical history and the analysis of the urine for reduced chloride<sup>1</sup> or the use of urine and gastric fluids may confirm.

Water depletion probably occurs more frequently than salt depletion. Dehydration reduces the concentration of salt in the sweat and although the sweat secretion is increased at the same time the net effect is that the body is conservative salt. It does not conserve water under conditions of heat stress as far as we know. Daily acclimatization obviously includes the water lost by sweating but the urinary output may be reduced. The frequent effects of life in a warm climate on water output require further study. There is not an adequate guide to water requirements and if drinking water is not palatable a man is not feeling well or is badly shocked, he may not drink enough. Or a man put to his knees to drink sea-water to meet his real requirements in a warm environment. The increased incidence of renal colic in ships in the tropics gives a clear pointer that men may become chronically dehydrated when their appetite does not prompt them to drink enough.

A convenient test is that described by Farrow (1941). *How and the* 1941, 14. Two drops of urine are measured into a test tube. The urine for chlorine per liter is added with distilled water and one drop of potassium chromate solution (20 per cent) is added as an indicator. The system is stirred again and then silver nitrate solution (2.5 per cent) is added one drop at a time, and the test tube is shaken after the addition of each drop. The red gives a sharp colour change from yellow to brown. It is important to make a 'potassium' test each day to see to ensure that there is no accumulation of the chloride with chloride. The number of drops needed to produce the red point gives the 'chlorine' value of chloride in the urine, expressed as grams of sodium chloride per liter or g. 1 drop = 1 gram of NaCl per liter. Hypoclorinated urine has less than 1 gram per liter is a sign of depletion. If the same constant 5 grams per liter of urine the point is unlikely to be suffering from salt depletion. (Harvey et al. 1940) American Lecture Notes No. 70. Charles C. Thomas Springfield, Illinois.)

<sup>1</sup> A suitable test paper known as 'Urochlor' is manufactured by Johnson & Heston Ltd (London Eng.).

prevent stone-formation in the kidneys. One ship in the Pacific reported 8 cases in four and a half months last year from a ship's company of about 520 (an annual rate rate of 22 per thousand), of whom 3 were avoided from the disease!

#### Practical Issues

Although the problem is complex most of the practical remedies are obvious. Many heat casualties occur in unacclimatized men doing hard work. Their work load should be watched carefully and may have to be reduced if the weather suddenly becomes appreciably warmer or more humid when the wet-bulb temperature is over 70 °F.

Men who are wearing the heads of their midsummer under excessively warm conditions are often in a state resembling that seen with scurvy. They cannot be relied on to know when they have had enough and may continue to work on automatically if allowed to do so. It is desirable that whenever it is change should not be exposed to such stress stress in the man, or he may fail to recognize imminent casualties, or to act promptly and correctly when they occur.

It is a paradox that well men will succumb before those who are both fit and the practical implication of this, that when men are out working in a water atmosphere everything should be done to ensure that they may rest and sleep in night in a comfortably cool place so that they may return to their labours refreshed, attract less attention from it deserves. Furthermore, this will practically eliminate prickly heat as a problem. Sleeping on the upper deck on canvas camp beds is not one of the coverage remedies for gaining a few hours cool and restful sleep even in the least habitable ship when this is prevented by the operational situation.

This paper is published by the kind permission of Surgeon Vice-Admiral Sir Cyril May A.R.C. C.B. M.C. F.R.C.S., Q.B.S., Medical Director-General of the Navy.

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## THE ATMOSPHERIC ENVIRONMENT BETWEEN DECKS

BY

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### A MATTER OF COMPROMISE

Success in the construction of a warship can only be achieved by endless compromise, compromise between the requirements for space and weight, for weapons, detection and communication systems, propulsion and other machinery, and interior and the space needed for the accommodation of the crew and the weight of refrigeration or ventilation systems to make it habitable, compromise between the need for providing healthy atmospheric conditions between-decks and providing an efficient damage control and atomic, biological and chemical warfare defence system which will maintain an airtight "caveat", compromise between the need for efficient, handy to operate and maintain equipment of ever-growing multiplicity and complexity and the need to keep the compromise to the minimum compatible with full lighting efficiency and to prevent overcrowding and the mismanagement of space for accommodation, compromise between the various financial priorities which, in the last resort, determine what goes into a ship and what does not—for example, an additional radar set or air conditioning for the mess decks! The Naval Staff states the requirements for a new ship. The Controller's Department try to fit all these into an efficient design, and the story of a new ship is one of "give and take" and "calculated risks" from start to finish.

It is a responsibility of the Medical Director-General of the Navy to advise on the various environmental limits within which the designers must keep to ensure that the atmosphere between decks will be conducive to a healthy way of life and optimum efficiency in all quarters of the globe where ships must operate, and, as the equipment and the operational plan is always changing, these standards must be kept under constant review. For example, the upper level of carbon dioxide which was considered compatible with health and efficiency in a submarines underway of the World War Two era, which rarely submerged for more than 12 or 16 hours on any one day, is likely to be very different from what can be allowed in the true submarines of the future which may be required to remain submerged continuously for one, two or three months at a time, and to carry out repeated cruises of similar duration.

Such values as these have to be defined sometimes at necessity pragmatically, in terms of features on which the designers can work before the latter can commit the ship to the drawing board—often it is still "in pleasant to the painter's eye"—but they are under constant review, and can only pass the ultimate test by ship's companies when the ship is built and operating under all the various conditions it has been designed to withstand. Thus the ship's medical officer is the principal arbiter who reviews the evidence and advises his commanding officer, and through the medium of his Quarterly Journal the Medical Director-General of the Navy whether or not the present managerial requirements of the ship's company are justified and point to the areas where he considers modifications are needed.

#### THE ADMIRALTY VENTILATION COMMITTEE

The problem is essentially one of accommodation and of maintaining effective standards of air hygiene. Much careful thought has been devoted to both aspects, and in particular by two Admiralty Ventilation Committees which reported in 1914 and 1937.

The 1914 Committee accepted the standard conventional for those days that systems should be designed to keep the level of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere below 0.05 per cent, by ventilation which provided 50 cubic feet of fresh air per man per minute on the main decks. The 1937 Committee considered that the designer's aim should be to carry away the heat generated within ships, rather than the carbon dioxide, but the information available was inadequate to indicate how this might be done to the best advantage. In effect, a reduction in the fresh air requirements to 30 cubic feet per man per minute was accepted, and it was left to those who had to contend with these problems during the Second World War to work out the details. Air conditioning was not considered to be essential.

In 1944 the transfer of a large part of the Fleet to the *Trojan* forced an urgent review of the situation. The Medical Research Council's Royal Naval Personnel Research Committee was invited by the Admiralty to appoint a subcommittee to take on problems of the environment between decks and in particular to define thermal standards for working workshops in the *Trojan*. After fourteen years the first phase of the Committee's deliberations is nearing completion.

In its tentative developments in thermodynamic, biological, chemical and social warfare have re-emphasized the need for workshops to be closed down effectively and quickly when necessary and have called for a knowledge of the acceptable minimum as well as the optimum requirements for fresh air.

In the interim, with the post-war introduction of the British version of the German and Dutch schockel, the hollow mast which permits the continuous ventilation and dorsal propulsion of a submerged submarine, and more recently the outstandingly successful introduction of nuclear-powered submarines in the United States Navy, with an underwater endurance which

is limited only by the "human factor" and provides a comparatively luxurious work-a-ran and sleeping quarters - at perhaps 15 cu ft.

Although there have not been any further Ventilation Commission since 1933, the ventilation requirements, at least those of surface ships, were brought up to date in the light of World War Two experience in B.R. 1094 (1946) 'Instructions for the Design and Installation of Ventilation Arrangements in His Majesty's Ships,' which is termed appropriately in the next essay.

#### THE SPACE IS WORTH TO LIVE

Surgeon Vice-Admiral Sir Stephen Dudley (1956) has summarized the working problem thus: 'What is the ratio of the space allocated to the human element to the space allowed to the mechanical element of the total fighting ship (ship plus ship's company) which will make the most efficient use of war?' The priorities are explained as heavily in favour of man and that in practice this amounts to "what is the minimum space which can be allotted to the ship's company without imposing serious limitations on their health or efficiency?"

At the time when the 1933 Commission was sitting an average space of only 130 cubic feet per man was available on the main decks in the 1400s. This was later found to be inadequate for modern war complements, and towards the end of the 1930-1940 hundreds of ships were being designed to provide each man with a space of approximately 160 cubic feet - or 30 square feet of floor space if there was 8 feet between the decks. Experience has shown that this was the minimum which would accommodate a man and his equipment so that he could live reasonably for long periods during global operations. In the Tropics up to 70 per cent of extra deck on the upper deck on camp beds whenever they were allowed to do so - which might not be permissible in certain stages war time today with the most careful planning, the complexity and diversity of a modern warship's complement, and the numbers of men required to operate and run her, permits only 30 square feet of floor space to be allocated for junior ratings and 35 square feet for those more senior, calculated for the full war complement. When this is compared with the wartime minimum for naval barracks of not less than 45 square feet per man, or 30 square feet if double-decked bunks were used it is obvious that here is a situation on which to keep a watchful eye.

In submarines the average cubic space per man varies from rather below to rather above 100 cubic feet in the compact living and sleeping quarters, but as a submarine is usually a single compartment the ventilation problem, the available volume of 'background air' varies from 300 to 500 cubic feet for each man in the different classes.

Thus the space allowance per man between decks tend to depend on the amount of space which remains to be divided up between ship's company when provision has been made for the installation of weapons, equipment, machinery, and more or rather than on hard hygienic principles which at present escape precise definition, and the tendency to stack up on even the images

space allowance provides a constant challenge to the naval hygienist and to the ship's medical officer.

#### THE THERMAL ENVIRONMENT

The debate between decks is probably best in perspective to the space available. The American effective temperature scales (Moorhead and Taylor, 1921-1924; Taylor and Miller, 1935) are based on describing the thermal environment in British workshops nowadays (B R 1472). These scales enable an observer to relate the thermal comfort sensation of persons engaged in sedentary or light occupations, wearing light clothing or dressed in the waist, and exposed to varying combinations of air temperature, humidity and radiance to the temperatures of still and circulated air in which they would experience the same sensation of thermal comfort. A correction proposed by Dr T. Bedford is used to allow for radiant heat when necessary by substituting the globe thermometer temperature for the dry-bulb temperature when the effective temperature is determined to give a "corrected effective temperature".

Several attempts to effective temperature as an index of physiological effect are under trial in England and the United States. A notable pioneer concept, suggested by the Royal Naval Personnel Research Committee by McArdle and his co-workers in 1940 for assessing the stress imposed by strenuous work and unduly warm atmospheres, was to use the predicted four-hour sweat rate for sweat loss, which could be determined for different conditions of climate, work, and clothing from an empirical nomogram constructed from the data of experiments which they carried out in a climatic controlled laboratory in London in 1944 and 1945. This system probably provides the most useful basis for a 'stress index' which has been thought of since effective temperature, which essentially is a 'comfort index' and it offers certain advantages over the latter, particularly when the sweat output is profuse, one gain being that an adjustment is made for differences in work rate as well as for climate. It is, however, more difficult to use. By definition, it can be employed only in the temperature range in which people sweat. The data available were perhaps rather scanty for the construction of such a comprehensive nomogram. At present it has been tested insufficiently for it to be considered more than a research tool which should be kept in the hands of those who know how to use it, but relevant to that index are now mentioned frequently in the literature and Smith (1955) has shown that it is probably rather more accurate than effective temperature under certain conditions. It is desirable for all hygienists to know that it exists, and for the climatic physiologist to know how to employ the nomogram if he should be confronted with it. It has been suggested by the Royal Naval Personnel Research Committee that the levels of warmth above which an increasing number of naval personnel serving under operational conditions in warships in the Tropics will be incapacitated by increases in sweat loss those corresponding to a P 458 (predicted four-hour sweat rate) value of 3 (Ellis, 1952). Moorhead

This action, i. e. of effective temperature has been enhanced by an ingenious method proposed by Gray and Smith (1952), for predicting effective temperatures in the Tropics from measurements made on the main decks in temperate waters.

LIST OF EFFECTIVE TEMPERATURES FOR MEN, BASED ON MEASUREMENTS AT 1000 h (0600 h light/air) UNDER CONDITIONS OF A P-55 (FRANCIS 4-DECK SUBMARINE) AT SEA

Main air speed (ft/min.)	Main working in shade				Main working above			
	Effective temperature corresponding to a P-55 (1) and dry-bulb temperature (°F) of				Effective temperature corresponding to a P-55 (2) and dry-bulb temperature (°F) of			
	80	100	120	140	80	100	120	140
20	77.7	80.9	84.1	—	81.1	85.0	88.9	—
100	58.2	60.6	63.0	—	—	61.5	65.2	—
200	—	60.2	64.7	—	—	61.0	66.2	—

\*The observed mean rate of the main working station was 111 knots/hr at London but only 100 knots/hr at Singapore, a difference which has not been explained outside approximately 50°. The P-55 station group have been substituted for 100 knots/hr and would be slightly more for 111 knots/hr.

†The higher temperature comparisons for main working above emphasize that the normal wet-bulb values are not interchangeable.

‡The arbitrary figure is probably due to an error in the construction of the P-55 comparison over the range of the lower wet-bulb temperatures.

The use of the dry and wet-bulb whirling psychrometer, the globe thermometer, the biotemperature and the charts which accompany R.R. 1472 is described in detail in this R.R. of which all medical officers should have a copy. These instruments are not however always readily available, particularly the globe thermometer and biotemperature, and their efficient usage does require some practice and is time-consuming. Much valuable information is to be gained by the use of the whirling psychrometer alone which should be available in all ships. A report on the dry and wet-bulb temperatures recorded with this instrument in a compartment considered to be unduly warm, together with the dry and wet-bulb temperatures recorded about the same time on the upper deck in the shade or windward away from any hot or steamy exhaust or funnel draughts, and statements in general notes as to whether the air movement is occupied persons in the compartment is "poor", "good", "no", "very good", or whether radiant heat from hot bulkheads, machinery or other sources is of "appreciable", "moderate" or "severe" degree, will supply the Admiralty with much of the information needed to decide whether or not this is a situation requiring further investigation, proceed in hot climates that ventilation fans are running at full speed, and that otherwise the ventilation system is being maintained and operated in the manner recorded.

When particular detail on constructional features is considered necessary

a survey of 1 compartment or group of compartments should be carried out in conjunction with other technical departments and, if possible, with advice from the Fleet Commander's Office, and a complete report from the ship should be submitted to the Admiralty on Form S 1030 (Revised July, 1955) by the Commanding Officer (S.R. 1955 Form 3411 and Q.R. vol. A 1, Article 2941, Clause 2 apply). Copies of these reports should also be forwarded to the Medical Director General of the Navy when it is considered that the conditions reported jeopardize the health or efficiency of ships' companies, with a covering letter to amplify the medical aspects of the situation.

A considerable amount of work was done in Singapore at the Royal Naval Tropical Research Unit between 1944 and 1950 to show whether the effects of short-term exposures to high temperatures such as men would experience during a four-hour watch are the same for accustomed young men living in hot climates as they are for young men who are trained to work at high temperatures but live in temperate climates. This was in view of the importance in the Tropics of much of the current machinery which is largely based on experimental work in temperate climates. The answer is that in all respects and purposes the effects are probably much the same, provided both groups are similar and are equally trained to do the same sort of work and wear the same clothing. This confirms the finding of wartime studies that trained naval personnel subjects in London were able to compare most effectively with the heavy work of handling ammunition that has well trained gun crews in the Tropics. Repeated physical exercise is probably at least of equal significance to repeated exposure to a warm atmosphere in the accommodation of these with circumlocution. The experiments in Singapore showed that long-wavelength heat radiations such as may be experienced in machinery spaces are not usually a major factor limiting a man's ability to work, and physiological support was provided for the use of Bedford's correction to the effective temperature scale to allow for this factor. The detailed results have still to be published.

There is convincing evidence that ships' companies were affected adversely by wartime conditions in warm climates. The average effective temperature in different types of compartment in the Eastern Fleet in 1944 were found to vary between 75° and 90° F. but some overheating was encountered frequently. Work took longer to do and was not done so well as in more temperate waters. Laboratory studies in temperate and in tropical indoor climates show that deterioration comes in the performance of tasks of even short duration when the effective temperature is in the lower ranges. When the average upper-limb depthwise temperature at noon exceeds 32° F., which corresponds approximately to average torso-deck effective temperatures of the same order (30° F.) some reduction, particularly skin damage, is more common. Furthermore, most people, whether on shore or on ships, feel uncomfortably warm when the effective temperature is above 80° F. for more than a short time, their skin is moist with sweat, sleep is disturbed and hot-climate fatigue is encountered more frequently as service effort is prolonged (Ellis, 1952a and b).

(1950). The coincidence of an increase in discomfort and in measures of health and a decrease in efficiency at these levels of warmth is undesirable.

A previous working recommendation that whenever practicable in spaces where men live or work in ships in warm climates, the effective temperature (or estimated effective temperature) should be kept below 84° F. is supported by the research work of the last few years. But comfort studies indicate that 70° F. should be the upper desirable limit rather than 80° F. This is the figure given in B.R. 1084 and it is in agreement with American naval practice. Fortunately much of the criticism which has been aimed at the effective temperature scale does not apply to the temperature zone with which we are concerned when prescribing conditions for man-in-the-workshops, or offices, and this recommendation does provide the investigator with the information he needs to design ventilation systems.

When the thermal stress is more severe, as in certain machinery spaces, or when hard work has to be done, it is probably wise for the practical officer to be guided by the wet-bulb temperature alone. If the dry-bulb temperature is in the region of 100-110° F. a wet-bulb temperature in excess of 93° F. is likely to prove intolerable within a few hours for men engaged and accustomed to lightly clad men engaged in moderate activity even when radiant heat is not an important factor and the air is circulating freely. The threshold wet-bulb temperature for less well accustomed personnel or adults men or for those wearing heavier or less permeable clothing may be 4-10° F. below this, or it may even be lower if heavy work must be done. A wet-bulb temperature in excess of 84-89° F., may or may not necessitate, or fit lightly clad unaccustomed men engaged in moderate activity when the dry-bulb temperature is 120-130° F., and qualifying factors such as those listed above will lower this threshold according to their degree.

If workshops which are not yet conditioned are closed down in tropical waters, to protect against the hazards of flash fires, flooding, or ambient air contaminated with harmful chemical, biological, or radioactive particles or droplets, a rise in the wet-bulb temperature of the atmosphere of 5 to 10° F. or more will occur in a few hours, and worse with the number and the mass production of the occupants and the size of the compartment. When the wet-bulb temperature at the point in a duct is well into the region, as it will be in many ships of old construction when in tropical waters, an unobtrusive rise of a few is likely to force the evacuation of some spaces before very long.

The value of air conditioning for British ships in the Persian Gulf was recognized long ago. In submission during the Second World War it provided an outstanding example of effective control of the thermal environment in confined spaces, and no widespread application, in ships of new construction has been declared to be the accepted Naval policy.

When air-conditioning is not available under very warm conditions, the adverse effect of "stale" air, and the benefit derived from creating turbulence air currents with high-volume ventilators, fans, or tube fans or by natural means, cannot be stated too strongly, provided the body is well

able to lose heat by convection, while the temperature of the surrounding air is less than that of the skin, or by evaporation while the vapour pressure of the air is less than that on the surface of the skin and clothing. In certain severe closed-down situations, however, when the above process cannot be met, increasing the turbulence of the air may be of little avail or may even add to the stress by increasing the convective heat gain. This should usually be feasible for work when such as very hot spaces to compensate in a cool space where cool drinking-water and a potable salt preparation are available.

At the other end of the temperature scale recent experience supports the opinion of the 1957 Ventilation Commission that in comfort or healthy warm air temperatures between 60 and 65° F are preferred by most men during and working between decks and wearing circumvented clothing and are easily attainable. This attention now is focused more on the design of clothing and equipment which will keep a man warm and dry on the upper deck, without impairing his working efficiency. There is, however, a need for more comprehensive data on the thermal environment between decks in ships operating in the lower climatic extremes.

#### CARBON DIOXIDE AND CARBON DIOXIDE IN THE AIR

When enclosed compartments are closed down for prolonged periods the atmospheric oxygen is used up and the carbon dioxide level rises. Thus



Carbon dioxide and oxygen contents of the air in a space closed for 100 minutes from 1000 and 21.0 percent (1000 and 21.0 percent) before and after a period of 100 minutes.

changes also vary with the size of the compartment and the number and the activities of its occupants. The changes shown in this graph were recorded



in a manner under closed-down conditions in a typical living space which was practically empty and a crowded air-conditioned working compartment. If the conditions in this working compartment had to be maintained for more than a few hours the fresh air supply would need to be re-established at intervals or equipment would have to be installed for releasing oxygen and removing carbon dioxide, unless the alternative of restoring the air supply and filtering it of potentially harmful agents was acceptable. In submarines carbon dioxide levels will be in the region of 3 per cent of gas atmosphere, the upper permissible limit for a 'conventional' as opposed to a nuclear-powered submarine and mild stress (75 per cent of sea atmosphere) is unavoidable at the end of a long day's duty if no corrective measures are applied. For more prolonged submergence the upper permissible limit for carbon dioxide is 1 per cent, or less depending on the circumstances. An accurate knowledge of the composition of the atmosphere and of the acceptable limits will become of increasing importance as the underwater endurance of these craft is increased and is essential to an understanding of life in enclosed spaces.

Provided the volume of a completely airtight space is known and the number of occupants and their level of activity is stated, it is relatively simple from a knowledge of the textbook values for the oxygen consumption and carbon dioxide output for the average man to estimate approximately the oxygen depletion and carbon dioxide accumulation for varying periods in the closed down state. A man doing light work utilizes about 1.1 cubic feet of oxygen and releases about 1 cubic foot of carbon dioxide per hour. With hard work these figures may be as much as 4.0 and 3.6 respectively. Where a situation is suspected in which it is considered that harmful amounts of accumulation with carbon dioxide may occur, and a remedy is not readily available, the facts should be reported to the Admiralty so that suitable with the necessary equipment may be sent to the ship to make the necessary environmental measurements and survey the compartment thoroughly.

#### BALANCE-PIECE PRINCIPLE

Changes in barometric pressure were not usually an important feature of the deep-sea environment until the advent of the schooner and as surface ships they can usually be disregarded.

The air-supply inlet at the upper end of the submarine's schooner hull was fitted with a float valve which closes off the air duct, either automatically or for a sustained period, when the air inlet dips beneath the surface, as it may in a choppy sea, or if the crew controlling the hydroplanes make a mistake in depth-keeping. With intermittent opening and closing of the valve the motion of the vessel and the resistance of the narrow air duct causes a negative pressure within the hull which increases with the speed under way and the related demands of the engines. Novel features include (1) reduced barometric pressure, (2) constant mild vacuum equivalent to flying at between 4000 and 5000 feet, (3) pressures fluctuating every few minutes between values

equivalent to those encountered at altitudes of 4,000 to 5,000 feet, (4) more violent pressure fluctuations when the depth control is faulty and more sustained closure of the valve coasts, which give rise to stress, coast or dental wear, and (5) traces of carbon monoxide when the scheduled exhaust gases are drawn in with the fresh air supplies with a following wind or from unexpected submergence under closed propellers (Jiles, 1949). These phenomena have been reduced to a minimum by modifications in the equipment and operating procedures by training and selection of crew, and by eliminating the risk, but under certain operating and sea conditions they must still be taken into account in this type of submarine.

#### THE BACTERIAL CONTENT OF THE AIR

Repeated wartime epidemics of respiratory tract infections on ships promoted an investigation of the bacterial content of the air in a newly built cruiser and a submarine in 1945 (Jiles and Raymond, 1950). Previous investigations on shore had suggested that counts of bacteria-carrying particles exceeding 50 per cubic foot of air were undesirable. In most of the working compartments of the cruiser this level was not usually exceeded, but it was on the mess-decks, particularly when there was much activity in the bathrooms in the morning, and in the sick bay when cots were made up. The relative importance of the numbers of isolated airborne particles as cross-infection is still debatable. When overcrowding is unavoidable an attempt should be made, according to the circumstances, to control infectious material at its source by such measures as isolation of those infected, mass radiography, mass immunization, as effective and extensive acceptable vaccines become available or by mass chemoprophylaxis during epidemics caused by known pathogens, such as typhus, but in these crowded circumstances, most epidemics of upper respiratory tract infections will run their course and natural immunity and a healthy ship's company are still probably the most effective defenses available. The air in the submarine was consistently free of bacteria whether it was submerged or on the surface. This may have been because about 365 cubic feet of "bacterial" air was available for each man, because bacteria-carrying particles settled to the ducts of the ventilation system or in oily machinery as the air was recirculated through the engine room and other machinery compartments, or in all probability because of both these factors.

Preliminary tests in an un-conditionsed space in the cruiser and in a climate-controlled laboratory in London indicate that a build-up of bacteria-carrying particles in the air does not occur even when the air is completely recirculated for a few hours. A more recent study shows that this is still the case after a ship's compartment has been closed down for thirty hours, but this aspect, and particularly the effect of prolonged recirculation in un-conditionsed compartments with very low levels of fresh air replenishment, merits further investigation. The evidence is that, however, in containing rather than otherwise.

## FRESH AIR SUPPLY

The natural supply of fresh air which will permit (and is) level 4 comfortable facility and efficient endurance in an enclosed space and thus followed by a variety of factors. Unrestricted heavy tobacco smoking causes methane build-up, and upper respiratory tract irritation. With air cooling 5 cubic feet of air per man per minute suffices to keep body and tobacco odours at acceptable levels. With activated carbon filters in the ducts and air-cooling rate 1 cubic foot per man per minute is found to be adequate, and surface discharge carbon monoxide, butane and dust should not reach objectionable levels. In the Royal Navy at least 18 cubic feet per man per minute is supplied in enclosed compartments, where the cooling is in operation. For compartments with normal ventilation an allowance of 10 cubic feet per man per minute is added to the amount which is calculated to be necessary to get rid of the heat within the compartment. The total quantity must be equivalent to at least 30 cubic feet per man per minute (J.R.K. 1944). In the United States Navy a fresh air supply of 5 cubic feet per man per minute in the main rooms required by design for air-cooled compartments although for other divisions, this amount is usually extended as practice.

Little is known about the effects of prolonged or repeated residence in a badly enclosed space. There is no obvious reason why serious adverse effects, other perhaps than those of a psychological nature, should occur if the equipment for controlling the temperature and composition of the air is efficient and is used correctly. The possibility should not be forgotten that in an unventilated or poorly ventilated space small amounts of contaminants, such as the breakdown products of fuels, lubricants, paints, cooking, etc. refrigerants, or similar chemical substances which accumulate in a ventilated compartment may affect man adversely if exposure is prolonged or repeated and one should always be on the lookout for such effects, particularly under novel or unusual operating conditions.

## POSITIVE HEALTH

The environmental health of a community contributes to its "positive health". Serious defects in the environment may not be reflected by obvious "negative health". It is thus advisable to supplement the bald records of sickness in the Navy by measuring the environmental factors and relating these measurements to established criteria of what is or is not desirable. The requirements of the man must be appreciated against a complete background of material needs and tactical situations. New instruments and techniques are now available to close many of the gaps which hampered this work in the past, and a fund of relevant information has been assembled at the Royal Naval Medical School and the Royal Naval Hygienological Laboratory and at the office of the Royal Naval Personnel Research Committee and is available for reference to those who require it.

This paper is published by the kind permission of Surgeon Vice-Admiral

Sir Cyril May, KBE, CB, MC, FRCS, QMS, Royal Navy Medical Director-General of the Navy

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# MANUS ISLAND

BY

SERGEANT LAWRENCE B. McMAHON WADSWORTH, R.A.N.Z.

In 1958 I had the opportunity of serving for several months in R.M.A.S. Tarangau, the Royal Australian Naval shore establishment at Manus Island. Some account of life at this tropical outpost may be of interest to readers of this Journal.



Tarangau Bay

Manus, with the adjacent island of Los Negros, makes up the main bulk of the Admiralty Islands. These two islands are separated by a shallow strait, barely 100 yards wide in places. To the North, enclosed by a chain of small and coral islands, is Bougainville Harbour—one of the finest in the world. It is from the native word for sea eagle (= German steadily that Tarangau takes

in nature. The naval establishment lies on Lombard point, a promontory of Lau Nigga reaching out into the south eastern corner of Soudier Harbour.

The Mamu group lies about 100 miles south of the equator and some 250 miles north of Lau, which is the most important island on the north coast of New Guinea. Mamu and Lau Nigga form a land mass about 80 miles long, with jagged, cone-topped hills and, down in the south-west, mountains rising to nearly 2,500 feet.

#### ADMINISTRATION

The Admiralty group forms part of the United Nations trust territory administered by Australia, together with her own territory of Papua through the Territory of Papua—New Guinea Administration, colloquially known in the region as the "Admin".

The Administration's regional headquarters is at Loringan, about 7 miles from Lombard on Mamu proper. The District is in the charge of a District Commissioner and government services provided include Education, Health, Customs, Agriculture and Police.

#### CLIMATE

For a tropical climate, the weather conditions at Lombard are excellent. There are two seasons, the "wet" or North-West from late November until March and the "dry" or South-East season. Most of the island's 130 or so miles of rain fall during the wet season but there are occasional afternoon showers throughout the dry season and there are usually useful falls in July.

The temperature ranges between 75° and 90°. The seasons are nearly always pleasantly cool and in Lombard Point, just out into the harbour, there is usually enough air movement to keep one reasonably comfortable.

#### THE PEOPLE

The indigenous people of Mamu are Melanesian. Most of the labourers employed on these islands are recruited from the New Guinea mainland. (Three days, this means meeting the cost of air transport from New Guinea to Mamu and back again to their homes on expenditure of their two paid contracts.) Mamu islanders seem content to remain as they are. They are well fed and healthy by the constant efforts of Patrol Officers and Missionaries, reasonably well housed—by native standards.

#### HOUSEHOLD CONVENIENCES

Living conditions in Taragan are good. Some of the old living blocks are gradually being replaced by new airy quarters. For married personnel (having a two paid years) there is, a limited number of residences, most of them (real) and catch-modified "Quonset" huts which if properly used, make very pleasant dwellings. Each is fully equipped with electric stove and refrigerator and has its own hot water system. For those who can be bothered, golfing can add much to the surrounding beauty.

Sporting facilities include two tennis, football, tennis courts and swimming pool and a cinema which can be changed for indoor sports. Near by, there is

a rather small strip of beach which is excellent for swimming during most of the year. On the outer side of the island there are coral reefs forming with tropical fish to fascinate the underwater explorer.

#### MEDICAL RESPONSIBILITIES AND FACILITIES

The Royal Australian Navy provides two medical officers to look after the medical needs of the personnel of *Esperanza* also the Royal Australian Air Force station at Momba (about 8 miles away) and the Company of Pacific Islands Regiment (except stationed at Nati Point (about 1 miles from Lombrera). Normally the Administrative Medical Officer cares for the wives and children of Service members but since the two bridges on the road from Lombrera to Lombrera fell into such disrepair after the war that they became impassable for anything heavier than a motor cycle, much of this work falls to the naval medical officers. (One of the road bridges has been rebuilt and work begun on the other since the time of my appointment.) Actually, then, we were responsible for a general practice covering some 600 Europeans, about 100 native government and police and about 500 native labourers. In addition, we were frequently called upon for emergency treatment of the few natives and 600 or so natives of the surrounding district.

At Lombrera, there is a well-equipped Naval Hospital for Europeans. At present this has only 14 beds but without erecting new buildings or much reconstruction work it could accommodate double that number comfortably. The operating unit is well equipped and the antiseptic and sterilising equipment all modern. There is a reasonable radiological setup and the laboratory facilities are good. There is a good dental surgery under the same roof. The Naval Dental Officer was happily occupied at all times.

As well as the new hospital there is a 20-bed Native Hospital run by the Navy. This has its own operating theatre which could be used in an emergency. It is staffed by Native Medical Orderlies under the supervision of a member of the Red Cross Staff and visited daily by one of the naval medical officers.

#### CIVIL MEDICAL FACILITIES

The Administrative Medical Officer was responsible for the medical care of the inhabitants of Momba and all the surrounding villages of the group, some of which are 250 miles in the west. The total population is around 60,000. He is assisted by two European Medical Assistants and a group of native orderlies some of whom are very able. There is a small European hospital at Lombrera and a native hospital capable of holding some 200 patients, including their relatives in many instances. In addition there are outlying medical aid posts such as the care of a medical orderly.

The relations between Administrative and Naval medical officers have been most cordial and, needless to say, we frequently met for consultation and to agree with operative procedures. I was fortunate enough to be asked to give a party visit by the Administration to a little frequented part of the south coast in order to investigate an outbreak of probable whooping-cough. It

was this trip which enabled me to see some less civilized villages. (The villages near Loeihi are much shanty towns built with various scrap salvaged from the jungle.) I also happened for an all-night trip two days the conditions under which government officials live when "on guard." Some of the scenery on that trip was superb.

#### CLINICAL MATERIAL

As to the types of conditions met with—each ward be prepared for everything as the book<sup>2</sup>. I had been at Loeihi only a few weeks when an *Adia* station boat arrived one night from Loeihi with an urgent request for me to give the midwife for a dyspeptic Caucasian woman on a native woman with a known anæmia (hemoglobin 68 per cent) complicated by an anti-pattern hemorrhage, due to placenta previa and probable pulmonary tuberculosis. She was successfully delivered of a fine live baby and was completely untroubled by the ordeal, whilst the surgeon and I eventually succeeded.

One Sunday afternoon, a truck laden with natives overturned. The result—I died and 20 in hospital. Incidents like this don't, as one's memory has the great bulk of our work, was of course, with people everything things.

In the European Hospital, we had 170 admissions in the same months of our stay. The commonest reason for admission was acute trauma (45 cases). By admitting patients with even quite small lacerations, particularly of the lower limbs, we were able to keep down the number of tropical ulcers developed. Tropical ulcer is a real "nuisance" condition, quite minor breaches of the skin may lead to their formation. We made it a firm rule to keep covered any skin breach below the knee. 18 of the admissions during this period were for tropical ulcers. Upper respiratory tract infections accounted for 37 admissions and 21 patients had skin conditions (mainly infected insect bites). Surprisingly notwithstanding the fact that we rarely encountered previously due to the fairly high general standard of personal cleanliness and the maximum of clothing worn. Our most troublesome condition was acute otitis for which there were 13 admissions—all patients who had failed to respond to lengthy and thorough outpatient treatment. These were mostly people who had suffered ear infections in cooler climates and my personal feeling is that any newcomer with a history of discharging ears should be excluded from tropical service if at all possible.

There were only 2 percent cases of malaria amongst European newcomers during this period, this speaks well for the malaria prophylaxis (both these patients admitted locally in the regard), as the area is highly malarial.

Of the 334 Native Hospital admissions over the same period, as the trauma and upper respiratory tract infections accounted for roughly a quarter each. We had 14 patients with pneumonia—a high incidence amongst a population of about 700 adult males. We met with several instances of pulmonary infection following a common cold. These patients had maximal chest signs for more or less and were diagnostically surprising until we looked at X-ray the chests of all patients with a history of malaria, slight fever (aver-



over 100° F. when as hot as 140° and a persistent slight night breeze is usual. All responded rapidly to physiotherapy (percutaneous and peroral) diuretics and breathing exercises under pseudine "cover."

Of the purely tropical diseases the commonest was mela melasma, locally known as *guthi*. In most cases this responded to oral, bathologic red and triple dye. Yaws was occasionally seen but its manifestations are so protean and our experience so limited that we may have missed many cases. Filariasis seemed to be fairly common, mainly in children brought from the New Guinea mainland. With the Medical Assistant from Lorengau I did a midnight survey in a nearby village and we found microfilariae in 3 per cent of the inhabitants in a single thick blood smear from each person in the village. We did not meet with any cases of leprosy in the area but leprosy are occasionally detected amongst Manus Islanders.

#### MALARIA PREVENTION

The siting of H.M.A.S. Taromagan makes it possible to achieve complete eradication of the anopheline mosquitoes in the wet season. In the dry season and summer, a large degree of control should be possible but there will always be some mosquitoes blown in from a fairly large expanse of swamp about three-quarters of a mile from the establishment.

All potential sleep in mosquito-proofed quarters or die under nets. Night clothing, covering of women, socks and long-sleeved shirts is worn at night to minimize the risk of exposed skin.

Chemoprophylaxis in the form of amodiaque, three tablets (—450 mg. of base) once weekly is given to all naval personnel. There is no doubt that the regime is adequate and efficient. The drug must be continued for at least six weeks and preferably three months after leaving the area. However amodiaque does cause some discomfort to many people—particularly gastric intestinal disturbances. The side effects can be minimized by taking the drug with food and in a divided dose. Administration of 150 mg. three weekly would probably be satisfactory but such a scheme would be difficult to supervise. (At present the drug is taken at payment and at a special meeting on "non-pay" weeks.)

The K.A.A.F. prophylaxis scheme of chloroquine—150 mg. of base, three times weekly. This appears to be quite as effective as amodiaque. Personnel who cannot tolerate these drugs may substitute pyriminyl hydrochloride, 200 mg. daily.

#### The "P.N.G."

No account of H.M.A.S. Taromagan would be complete without some mention of the Papua New Guinea division of the Royal Australian Navy. There are about 60 Manus men, many of them serving a second three-year engagement, with native Leading Hands (P.O.s and crew, one Chief Petty Officer). They are mostly first-class seamen and they are intensely proud of the service. Members of the "P.N.G." command great respect and prestige in their home villages and the Division will never face recruiting difficulties.

*Oral Hygiene and Caries*

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GINGIVITIS, DENTAL  
CARIES EXPERIENCE, STATURE, INTELLIGENCE AND  
PLACE OF RESIDENCE IN 12-YEAR-OLD BOY  
ENTRIES TO THE ROYAL NAVY—A PILOT STUDY**

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Jagoe Lieutenant-Commander (D) P. M. C. JAMES, R.N.V.R.

Statements of residual disability about the teeth is undoubtedly a common factor in the production of both dental caries and gingivitis, but a wide variation exists in individual susceptibility to the incidence and severity of the two diseases. The association between gingivitis and caries has been considered by several workers (Brackley 1943, Day 1944, King 1948, Wheeler and Stevens 1951, Månster, Lundström and Schmal 1955). The findings suggest that there is no direct or inverse relationship between the two, although it was noted by Månster and Stevens (1951) that children with severe gingivitis tended to have a higher dental caries attack rate. Mahowald (1957) also found that subjects with gingivitis had a higher incidence of dental caries.

A pilot study was carried out in H.M.S. Ganges in 1955 and 1956 on boys between 12 and 14 years now coming into the Royal Navy, primarily to determine the relationship between their gingivitis and caries experience. Information was available from Admiralty records on individual intelligence and up-to-date scores, stature, weight and bone age, so comparisons were made in an attempt to find relationships between any of these variables. Brackley and Hill (1952) found a correlation between intelligence quotient and caries experience in 165 American children of 6-15 years, the higher IQ group showing a lower dental caries experience. Cunningham (1954) and Harris (1956) both found a tendency for higher dental caries incidence in taller subjects among groups from the United States of America. Hagin (1947) has demonstrated that caries experience may vary within narrow geographic limits, and Zandvliet and Tromp (1957) found that if dental caries incidence in the Netherlands was studied in relation to geographical distribution caries frequency increased from north to south.

The pilot studies in the present investigation were as follows:

- (1) The relationship between dental caries and gingivitis
- (2) The relationship between dental caries and intelligence

- (3) The relationship between gingivitis and intelligence
- (4) The relationship between height and weight to dental caries experience
- (5) A comparison between the dental caries experience of boys originating from north and south of a line joining the Severn to the Wash

#### Subjects

1,358 13-year-old boys entering H.M.S. Gages for initial Naval training were weighed (wearing vest and underpants), measured and examined for dental caries. A sample of 304 boys was also measured with regard to their gingival condition. The group consisted almost exclusively of boys who had left their secondary modern schools within a General Certificate of Education.

#### The Caries Examination

This was shared among five dental officers and was the routine dental examination that is carried out on boy cadets into the Royal Navy. The findings were recorded on dental charts and expressed subsequently as the number of decayed, missing or filled teeth per boy. Decay lesions were reported as carious, which minimizes the observational differences amongst examiners.

#### The Gingival Examination

The author assessed the gingival condition of 304 random boys using the Parlett modification of Selman and Mander's P.M.A. index (Parlett, 1953).

Severity and incidence were scored as described at length in a previous paper (Parlett and James, 1958). Briefly, the mouth was divided into six segments, upper and lower lateral segments, upper and lower left and right buccal segments, and the gingival condition in each segment was assessed according to an arbitrary scale of values ranging from no degree of inflammation (scoring 0) to severe inflammatory condition (scoring 3). The total value for the whole mouth had a possible range of 0-30.

#### The Intelligence Examination

The T<sub>1</sub> examination is a four-part test of general intelligence of abstraction level, practical mechanical comprehension, arithmetic and elementary mathematics, and mechanical aptitude measured by spatial and approximation tests.

TABLE I—DENTAL CARES

No. examined	Total D.M.F.	Mean D.M.F.	% Carious	% with D.M.F. 5 or less	% with D.M.F. 12 or more
1,358	9,458	6.9	3.61	14.15	10.4

TABLE II—GINGIVITIS

No. examined	Total P.M.A.	Mean P.M.A.	% with P.M.A. 5 or less	% with P.M.A. 12 or more
304	2,268	7.5	71.4	12.5

TABLE III—*Grouping, Dental Caries and Intelligence*  
Of 102 boys 41 had severe pyorrhea and 31 no pyorrhea.

Group	No.	Mean D.M.F.	Mean I <sub>q</sub>
		Index	rating
Severe pyorrhea	41	7.6	77.3
No pyorrhea	55	3.9*	81.9

\* Denotes a significant difference.

TABLE IV—*Dental Caries, Intelligence, Weight, Height and Grouping*  
Of 158 boys 144 had extensive dental caries and 150 had minimal dental caries.  
12 from these groups had also been examined for pyorrhea.

	No.	Mean I <sub>q</sub>	Mean weight	Mean height	No. pyorrhea	Mean pyorrhea
		rating	lb.	in.		score
Extensive dental caries	144	83.1	123.3	67.5	46	7.6
Minimal dental caries	150	82.1	122.9	67.5	34	7.8

TABLE V—*Intelligence and Dental Caries*  
Of 112 boys 80 had I<sub>q</sub> scores of 100+ and  
124 scores of 85+.

Group	No.	Mean D.M.F.
Higher intelligence	80	3.28
Lower intelligence	124	6.9

TABLE VI—*Intelligence and Grouping*  
Grouped scores had been recorded for 45 of the  
higher intelligence group and 50 of the lower  
intelligence group.

Group	No.	Mean pyorrhea score
Higher intelligence	45	7.34
Lower intelligence	50	7.18

TABLE VII—*Comparison Between Non-Banded  
Mouth and Mouth or von Bensen's White Line*

	Percentage caries-free	
	North	South
North	2.91	
South	1.82*	

\* Denotes a significant difference.

## RESULTS

Tables I-VII show the results which may be summarized as follows:  
*Dental Caries*

65.0% per cent of the boys had decayed, missing or filled teeth. The total number of decayed, missing or filled teeth in the group was 8,438, giving a mean D.M.F. of 6.2 per boy. 152 boys (49.1% per cent) had a D.M.F. of 2 or under, and 144 boys (45.6% per cent) had a D.M.F. of 12 or over.

These two groups, representing the ends of a wide range of career experience were taken as samples of boys having respectively a low and high career rate.

#### *Career and Height*

The average height of the boys in the selected groups was 5 ft. 3½ in. There was no difference in the height of boys in the high as compared with the low career group. If, however, the boys were segregated from the whole sample of 1,254 in height instead of by career rates, there was an observed difference of 0.25 in the mean D.M.F. of 164 boys of 5 ft. 8 in. and over compared with 165 boys of 5 ft. 3 in. and under, the latter boys showing the lower D.M.F. Statistical analysis of the findings showed that this career difference is 1.95 times the standard error of the difference, just on the borders of significance.

#### *Career and Weight*

The mean weight of the high and low career groups together was 122.6 lb. The mean weight of the high career boys was 123.3 lb., and that of the low career group 122.38 lb. The difference of the means was not statistically significant.

#### *Career and Intelligence*

The mean  $T_e$  of boys in the high career group was 53.1 and that for the low career group was 52.2. The difference is not significant.

If the 782 boys examined between January and July 1935 are grouped according to their  $T_e$  result, 151 boys have scores of 65 or less and 163 scores of 100 or over. The high  $T_e$  boys have a mean D.M.F. index of 0.48 more than the low  $T_e$  boys and this difference represents 1.7 times the standard error of the difference.

#### *Grapical*

The mean value for graphical condition in the 304 boys examined was  $7.5 \pm 4.1$  points. Of the 304, 40 had a very poor graphical condition (scoring 13 points or above) and 53 had a very good graphical condition (scoring 3 points or below). The mean number of disorganized, missing and filled levels of boys in the poor graphical group was 7.5 and that in the good graphical group 5.8. This is a significant difference, representing 6.3 times the standard error of the difference.

If the high and low career groups were considered in relation to graphical condition the mean graphical score of the high career group was 7.6 and that of the low career group 7.6, an observed difference of 0.6 P.M.A., an increase of the low career boys. This is not a significant figure.

#### *Grapical and Intelligence*

The mean intelligence rating of boys in the good graphical group was 61.6, and in the bad graphical group 52.2. The difference of 4.7 points is not significant. Grouping by intelligence rating rather than by graphical condition shows a difference in the mean P.M.A. scores of higher intelligence boys and lower intelligence boys of 0.18, which is not significant.

*Dental Caries Experience North and South of the Severn-Wash Line*

Boys from north of the line had a mean D M F difference of 0.04 more than boys from south of the line. This is not significant. 3.71 per cent of northern boys and 3.05 per cent of southern boys had no decayed, missing or filled teeth. The difference in the two proportions is significant.

## CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

The findings demonstrate the very high incidence of dental caries in the United Kingdom. 96.06 per cent of all boys were affected. Although the mean number of decayed, missing and filled teeth was almost identical for boys having their dentition north and south of the Severn-Wash line there was a significant difference in the percentage of caries-free boys on each side of the line, 3.71 per cent north of the southern boys being free of all evidence of caries.

*Gingivitis and Dental Caries Experience*

Boys with severe gingivitis had an average of 1.7 more decayed teeth than those with no gingivitis. This difference is statistically significant. Boys with extensive caries had a mean gingival score of 0.6 F M A, more than boys with minimal caries, a difference which demonstrates the general trend but is not significant. This agrees with the previous findings that there is no direct or inverse relationship between dental caries and gingivitis, but that individuals with higher levels of gingivitis usually have more dental caries than those whose gingival condition is good.

*Intelligence, Gingivitis and Dental Caries*

No significant relationships were discovered. It might have been expected that higher intelligence groups would be lower in gingival score and dental caries experience as this is generally the clinical impression in general practice. However, it must be remembered that the samples here studied were all of the same socio-economic and educational background, and that intelligence per se without the necessary oral hygiene education and example may not be enough to induce proper dental care. It would be interesting to repeat this part of the investigation with boys of a higher educational standard.

*Dental Caries, Weight and Height*

No difference was observed in weights, but the tallest boys had a mean D M F of 0.25 less than the shortest boys, which was on the borders of significance. This is the reverse of the American findings.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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## CLINICAL TRIAL OF TRIFLUOPRAZINE IN MENTAL DISORDERS

BY

Sergio Osmarino G. G. WALLIS, M.D.

Current pharmacological opinion holds that phenothiazine tranquilizers act either by blocking excitatory or by stimulating inhibitory centers of pathways. This premise is thought to be a typical representative of the blocking group and pseudoparasympathetic of the so-called "tridacoprazine (TFP)" is a new derivative of the latter class. This drug differs from pseudoparasympathetic in that a rather carefully group has been substantiated for a chlorine atom.

In December 1957 and early 1958 at R.N. Hospital, Huelva, a pilot trial of the drug was carried out on 14 inpatients, of whom 17 were male and one female. Ages varied from 17 to 35 and the average age was 23. All were severely ill and were selected simply on the grounds that a tranquillizer was indicated. No attempt was made to use controls and the results were assessed purely on clinical impressions.

The drug was given by mouth and with minor variations the dose was 3 mg a day for the first three days, 10 mg a day for the second three days, with subsequent increases of 3 mg every three days until an adequate therapeutic effect was produced or a reduction of dosage was indicated by side effects. The maximum dose per patient varied from 15 to 45 mg daily (average of 26.0 mg). The duration of treatment varied from 2 to 14 days (average of 24 days).

The results are summarized in Table 1. Therapeutic effects were assessed by evaluating all aspects of symptomatology and the mental state. 13 of the 14 patients derived some benefit, which, however, was "marked" in only 3, all of whom had the diagnosis of anxiety state. Psychopaths showed the least

TABLE I.—Therapeutic Response to 10 mg TFP

Diagnosis	No. of cases	Therapeutic effect							
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Early schizophrenia	4		1	1					1
Anxiety state	4	3	1			1		1	1
Depression	1		1						
Post-concussional state	1		1					1	
Psychomotor personality	2			1	1	1			1
Total	12	3	4	2	1	2	1	2	3

improvement. Schizophrenics who might have been thought to be, particularly well on a major tranquilizer such as this, occupied an intermediate position.

The assessment of side effects was difficult because it soon became apparent that the theoretically stimulating action of the drug may "spill over" from inhibitory to other centres, so that it becomes an stimulator. Thus the commonest side effect was an uncomfortable, restless, tremulous agitation with fidgeting and sometimes acts of aggression. At first it was thought that this condition was an inadequately controlled manifestation of the primary disorder and therefore the dosage of the drug was increased. However, experience showed that reduction of the dose or total cessation of the drug often brought a dramatic sense of relief to both the patient and his doctor. Of the 12 patients who had side effects the combination of symptoms and signs occurred in 8, in one of whom it was combined with weakness and in another with confusion and dysarthria. Other side effects were drowsiness in three patients (in one combined with impaired concentration) and nausea and feelings of instability in another.

No Parkinsonism was seen and no hepatic, haematological, cardiovascular or cutaneous changes were observed. No dermatitis among the nursing staff handling the drug was encountered.

It is interesting that of all three patients who improved "Maximally" none had side effects but apart from this finding Table II shows that there was no correlation between the readiness of therapeutic and side effects.

TABLE II.—Relationship of Therapeutic to Side Effects in Four Doses of TFP

Therapeutic effects	Patients showing side effects				Total
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	
1	3				3
2		1	4	1	6
3	1		2	1	4
4				1	1
Total	4	1	6	3	14
R.O. in Table I	Therapeutic effects	Side effects			
0—Ineffective		1—None			
1—Moderate		2—Did not significantly affect therapy			
2—Marked		3—Complicated therapy			
4—Unhelpful or worse		4—Required therapy			



Other treatments, such as ECT (2 patients) and/or insulin treatment (1 patient) and nocturnal sedation with barbiturates (9 patients) were continued as necessary during administration of the drug and no adverse results were encountered as a result of the combination.

That this is a powerful drug, having about ten times the dose-for-dose potency of chlorpromazine, is illustrated by the following histories:

(7) A rigid, Caucasian man aged 34 with a high sense of duty and moral responsibility (445) history once institutionalized for conduct over four months before admission to hospital of depressive symptoms, without response from the usual chemicals, and inability to think about anything except himself and ways of increasing his pain. He was treated with massive amounts of insulin and/or barbiturates. A month's psychotherapy and barbiturate sedation had no effect and he was convinced that he had done himself irreparable physical harm. After six days on T.P.P. he improved dramatically. The drug was given for six weeks, three with a maximum dose of 20 mg. daily and then, with considerable effect. He has since remained well.

(8) An outgoing youth of 17 was locked up in the hospital as a trouble maker, aggressive and had several times severe grade convulsions. Therefore he experienced of treatment, drug therapy, fasting and electricity. He was a fully paid wage family life had been destroyed by the mother's hysterical and by his being a developmentally retarded child. At the first of the hospital stay he was confined to the hospital on a strict order with the parents on a permanent relationship with his family and on a state of conflict about a psychiatric history. He showed signs of the, at first, after six days on T.P.P. when a change of 10 mg. daily he became very "lively" and started other work he was usually confined and used a small effort who he had to much trouble to be able. Later he, at first, I thought he was on respiratory drug. He was agitated and had difficulty in visual concentration. The dose of T.P.P. was doubled and he became content and reasonably composed but a week later when the dose had been raised to 20 mg. daily, he showed too little work in a house and violent mood. On a maximum dose of 10 mg. daily he then improved steadily and after the drug had been used for a month he was discharged almost symptomatically.

(9) A male aged 17, while undergoing self punishment for bullying, suddenly showed thought disorder, personality a plus, plus, severe depression, chronic depression and auditory hallucinations. After only seven days on T.P.P. he became more rational and as better touch with his situation. A week later when taking 10 mg. daily he became, slowly, and completely of difficulty in concentrating. The drug was then discontinued and these symptoms disappeared. But he seemed very happy and he is now living a normal life.

#### CONCLUSION

The impression gained by the preliminary trial on 14 patients suggests that S.R.F. may be more valuable than other drugs in the treatment of certain anxiety states, but that as effect as giving Maudsley chlorpromazine is not generally so rapid or striking as that of chlorpromazine. A high incidence of side effects implies the necessity for a low initial dosage, followed by a slow and regular increase.

#### SUMMARY

(a) 14 patients, suffering from a variety of acute mental disorders were treated with thioridazine.

(b) 13 patients were improved to a greater or lesser degree.

(c) Side effects occurred in 10 patients but these were no Parkinsonism and no hepatic, hematological, cardiovascular or autonomic changes were observed.

The drug is manufactured under the name of "Sasagawa" by Smith, Kline and French Laboratories, Ltd., who kindly supplied quantities of it for this trial.

I am grateful to Surgeon Rear-Admiral G. Phillips for permission to publish this note.

## TWO CASES OF ALCOHOL-INDUCED BERE-BERI

BY

Surgeon-Commander G. G. WALLIS, R.N.

EXCESSIVE peripheral neuritis, which is a frequent complication of chronic alcoholism and featured in both patients reported here, manifestations of vitamin B<sub>1</sub> (thiamine, aneurin) particularly psychological abnormalities, are rare in this country.

Dr. Wernicke and Lorain (1947) in a remarkable study of 12 French prisoners of war whose diet in Japanese hands was deficient in thiamine, added the term cerebral ber-beri to the classically described neuritic, cardiac and oedematous types.

### (1) CEREBRAL BER-BERI

A male aged 37 was admitted to hospital on account of acute confusion and delirium on waking. He complained of pain in the legs and feet, cramps in the leg and foot muscles in the legs and double vision. He admitted that he had been drinking heavily for some years and that recently he did not remember events of alcohol, usually got ill was nauseously sick, denied hallucinations and had no delusions that was greatly deteriorated for days. He was extremely thin. Findings in the nervous system included coarse tremor of the hands and feet, marked impaired appreciation of touch and pain in the lower limbs, absence of vibratory sense in the lower limbs and prick sensation in the calves. Hypertrophy of the index distalities of the right hand and partial external ophthalmoplegia, both observed were being completely reversed. Otherwise physical examination was negative and chest X-ray showed clear and free function tests were within normal limits. Blood W.B.C. and P.P.K. were also negative.

Treatment by daily intramuscular vitamin B complex brought rapid improvement. Within three days eye movements were full and he was completely recovered but for a few more days he was troubled by diplopia and could not read without spectacles.

There were no psychological features and in the following weeks he gained a great deal of weight. Apart from hyperreflexia when there were no marked delirium when he left hospital three months after admission.

### DISCUSSION

In 1944 Wernicke described 3 patients, 2 of whom suffered from delirium tremens and the other from postural vomiting, who died after a period of coma, ophthalmoplegia and dilated pupils. Post mortem he found hemorrhages in the brain stem, hypothalamus and mammillary bodies and,

believing the cause to be an inflammatory response to a chemical toxin, he called the condition acute superior hemorrhagic pachycephalia. Thereafter the close relation to alcohol was emphasized but in 1933 Alexander produced in Thomas Sprague's pinto horses lesions identical to those occurring in alcoholics dying of Wernicke's syndrome and similar experiments have since been successful in other animals. Campbell and Suggan (1935) and Campbell and Reichen Russell (1941) showed that Wernicke's encephalopathy could complicate many diseases other than chronic alcoholism. Worts *et al* (1942) demonstrated that the syndrome was associated with a raised blood pyruvic, which Peters (1936) had described in a case linking, due to disturbed carbohydrate metabolism, in patients with chronic beriberi. Jelliffe *et al* (1939), Williams *et al* (1938, 1940, 1942) and Elson *et al* (1942) made controlled observations on induced thiamine deficiency in human volunteers and found that mental changes, such as inefficiency, impaired memory, confusion, depression and instability developed early—long before post-mortem, cardiac and cardiac dysfunction. Finally, de Wiedens and Lissner (1947) showed that 79 per cent of their patients with Wernicke's encephalopathy had signs of chronic beriberi and considered that the favorable response to thiamin was the best evidence of all that Wernicke's encephalopathy was in fact cerebral beriberi.

The patient's condition gave rise to suspicion of carcinoma and tuberculosis but underlying pathology other than alcoholism and anemia was finally excluded by five reactions to vitamin B and it may reasonably be assumed that the effective component of the complex was thiamin.

#### (2) Acute Cerebral Disease

A male, also aged 31 was admitted to hospital with a six months' history of acute pain in the left abdomen at the left flank, worse during night and irregular sleep and appetite, all of which were becoming more severe. There was a long history of alcoholism and at the previous few weeks he had violently drunk, more and more, in attempts to relieve the pain at his bed and to pass his sleep. His wife who gave a brief description of his past drinking and its effects on the family could not remember when he had last eaten. He added that for several first days before admission he had been having food of various kinds but his diet had included such things, e.g. as [EAT] his pulse-rate was 100 per minute.

When admitted he was mildly jaundiced but gave a 100% [EAT] of faeces and was clinically anorectic although his stomach was mildly empty. There were no delirium or hallucinations. The central clinical findings were:

General—Well nourished. Good colour. Temperature normal.

C.N.S.—Cerebral tension of brain and sign. Brief brief gas. Some generalized loss of motor power. Hyperreflexia of reflex. No obvious sensory loss. Tendon reflexes symmetrical and uniformly brisk.

C.A.P.—Heart 12 cm for six years. Soft and slightly tender four edge palpable five hypercontractile better noted during. No systolic murmur or gallop rhythm.

C.P.S.—Pulse regular at 100 per minute. B.P. 100/60. No other demonstrable blood.

R.S.—Respiratory rate 20 per minute. R.P. 100/60. No demonstrable disease.

Notes and treatment: 8 complex intravenously were started and started intravenously continued. He had a few nights but most sleeping was disturbed and interrupted. The initial pain was unrelieved except for an occasional brief. Blood pressure was at the upper of 100/60 and heart rate 100 (20) (normal) the stomach being very flat and the diarrhea except for very loose stools of green, irregularly regular. Normal saline was given by intravenous

they were obliged to abstain from alcohol completely and, but still in a small, produced only very modest improvement and a level of  $0.034 \pm 0.001$  to level sufficient to become reasonably normal. A week later and a second similar response to pressure on the main superior peripheral vascular distension. Although rather and disappointed in response to a relatively high level of consumption. He died a little over twenty-four hours after admission.

#### Discussion

Owing to the rapid march of events in this patient, no laboratory, electrocardiographic or radiological investigations were performed and the cardiac state could possibly be regarded as to hepatic failure, of which, however, there was no certain evidence. The history of alcoholism and anorexia and the, severe manifestations strongly suggested that heart failure was caused by lack of vitamin B.

Wood (1939) reported two examples of this condition, one associated with alcoholism and the other with self imposed semi-starvation owing to diarrhoea and colitis. Despite the administration of thiamin both died, although the alcoholic responded temporarily. O'Sullivan (1951) reported a similar patient who had "irreversible chronic diarrhoea" and whose right heart failure responded dramatically to vitamin B. Hershman (1957) has recorded following cases of this type in the U.S.A.

Wood (1939) described cardiac beriberi as a hyperkinetic, circulatory state involving peripheral vasodilatation and failure of the right ventricle as typical features.

The pathology is reviewed by Penhale (1943) who found degenerative changes, mostly in the muscular myocardium and the ventricular conducting system in thiamin-deprived pigs.

It is strongly noticeable that the circulation of the patient reported here should have failed after he had been put to bed and given potential vitamin B, it could be argued that sudden withdrawal of alcohol was a factor in precipitating severe circulatory failure but the non-alcoholic of Wood's (1939) patient collapsed and died on the day after admission to hospital.

Following on Wieselbecker's (1934) observation that on removal of protein removal, the signs of peripheral vasodilatation and features a paradoxical circulation for about twenty-five minutes, it would have been logical to give this patient protein. The use of non-adrenaline was carefully considered and was about to be put into practice when the patient died.

#### Comment

Accordingly to Sacher (1939) alcoholism becomes deficient in vitamin B because they take a diet which is high in caloric value (most of the energy being supplied by alcohol) and unless they drink less, less as vitamin B content (less so than contain the vitamin). Presumably also inflammatory changes in the chemistry blood reduce absorption. Williams and Spies (1938) showed that the requirements of the vitamin were proportional not to the total caloric intake but to the amounts of carbohydrate and protein in the diet,

been observed when the Osmometer-Ra value never fell below 0.3 mg per 1,000 c.c. Thus, two patients were spent drinkers, so that both factors in the case were affected in the adverse direction.

Although de Winter and Loomis (1947) suggested that cerebral beriberi was due to an acute deprivation of thiamin and that other forms of beriberi were commonly produced by a less sudden deficiency, no adequate explanation can be offered why one of these patients developed cerebral beriberi and the other cardiac.

#### SUMMARY

Two cases of acute beriberi: one cerebral and the other cardiac, are described. Both were heavy spent drinkers. The former responded dramatically to vitamin B and the latter died.

My thanks are due to Surgeon Rear-Admiral G. Phillips, for permission to publish this note.

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SOME EXPERIENCES WITH INFECTION IN THE  
OPERATING THEATRE

BY

Surgeon Commander R. VICTOR JONES, R.N.

Wound infection is still an important cause of morbidity after surgical operations. It is regrettable that this should be so more than fifty years after such pioneers as Lister and Lown worked out the technique of aseptic surgery. But it has to be admitted that despite their teaching and the advice of the antibiotic drugs the problem is still very much with us. The subject is embarrassing, and articles about it were consequently rather scarce in the surgical literature until a few years ago. However it is now fashionable to admit that sepsis still occurs in hospitals, and no apology is therefore made for recording two outbreaks occurring in naval establishments.

## FIRST OUTBREAK

The first outbreak occurred in a Royal Naval Hospital overseas. A patient, who had shown no evidence of skin or respiratory tract infection, was subjected to tonsillectomy. For the first ten days after the operation he had no pain in the throat and his temperature never exceeded 98 °F., but when the wound was inspected on the ninth day after the operation some redness of the suture line was noticed. On the twelfth day after operation a serious infection of the incision developed. A culture of fluid aspirated from the line grew a *Staph aureus* which was resistant to penicillin, moderately sensitive to streptomycin and terramycin and sensitive to streptomycin. The infection ran a prolonged and severe course.

The alarming occurrence of sepsis called for an investigation to find out how the infection had occurred.

All had not been entirely well with the aseptic technique during the six months I had been working in the hospital. Two urinary infections had occurred after cystoscopy, they had been attributed to the fact that the theatre staff had been under the impression that a cystoscope could be adequately sterilized by keeping it in an wooden case with a tablet of formalin. Following an operation the mucosa of the head of the retractor which superficial wound infection had occurred, from a small head of mucus which exuded from the wound were grown *S. proteus* and *S. aureus* Type 2— a curious mixture of organisms to be found in what should have been a clean

surgical wound. One or two other minor infections, amounting to no more than a little redness of the incision lines, had occurred. On enquiry I found that my predecessor had been obliged to stop operating for a time during the hot weather because of wound infection.

All this amounted to no more than a cloud the sun of a man's hand as the surgeon—yet it was clear that something was wrong. The anatomical mechanism, suturing and aseptic ritual during operations were investigated and no breach of asepsis was found. Cultures were grown from the air in the theatre and the dust on its floor—no pathogens were found. The noses and throats of the theatre staff were cultured and three of them were found to be nasal carriers of *Staph aureus*, but in each case the organism was sensitive to penicillin and showed other sensitivity differences from that grown from the infected knee joint.

Despite reasonable aseptic vigilance by a theatre team who won by now very "laxity" about wound sepsis, a couple of months later wound infections occurred in two patients operated on for benign vulva and improving testis respectively on the same day. Both these wounds produced cultures of *S. proteus* and *S. aerogenes* Type 2. A common factor for these cases and the case mentioned previously was taught and after discussing many possibilities I was reminded that Citramide solution (C.T.A.B.) had been used on the wound in all three cases. A ready use bottle of this solution was kept in the theatre, it was freshly made up once a fortnight by diluting a 10 per cent stock solution to 1 per cent with tap water, the bottle and cork being sterilized by boiling each time. The Citramide in the ready-use bottle and its cork were cultured, and each produced a heavy growth of *S. proteus* and *S. aerogenes* Type 2.

Here, then, was the source of some of our infections, though it did not explain how a *Staph. aureus* came to be introduced into a knee joint.

The Citramide was investigated. It was found that the stocks we were using were probably about five years old and were thought to have been bought from the hospital shop *Mohr* when she paid off. The inside of some of the tins were found to be rusty, their contents were, however, sterile. On further enquiry it was found that Citramide produced by the firm in question at the time these stocks were introduced contained a certain critical percentage of mangrove material, which enabled such organisms as *S. col.*, *P. pyocyaneus* and *Aerobacter aerogenes* to grow in aqueous solutions of between 1 and 10 per cent, particularly if stored in rusted bottles. In my view the organisms probably came from the tap water which was used to make up and dilute the stock solution, for we were under impression that Citramide was self-sterilizing.

Apparently, similar trouble had been experienced at R.N. Hospital, Plymouth, some years ago, and as a result the manufacturer changed the composition of their Citramide in 1955 and state that this problem is now solved.

Following this experience all Cotrimide used in the hospital was freshly made up daily using small screw-topped bottles, which were autoclaved, and sterile water. No bottle was permitted to be used more than twenty-four hours after it had been opened.

No further case of wound infection occurred in the twelve months after the promotion was initiated. (It should be emphasized in passing that a six-month trial has no statistical significance and must not mislead one into thinking that the problem of wound infection is solved. In fact, another isolated wound infection occurred two months after the end of this period.)

It remains to add that the origin of the *Staph. aureus* infection was never found—a common outcome to such investigations from what one reads in the literature. It may indeed have been that refuge of the desperate—a blood stream infection. A minor infection of the wound with *Gram-negative* organisms from the Cotrimide might have set up a "lower resistance response" which allowed the *Staph. aureus* to gain a foothold.

#### SECOND OBSERVATION

My next assignment was to an establishment in the United Kingdom with a Sick Quarters. On joining I found that my predecessor had been troubled by an outbreak of staphylococcal wound infections. It could not be established with certainty how long the epidemic had been going on, but it appeared that cases of sepsis had been occurring with some frequency for at least two years. Of the last 11 "clean" cases treated by open operation, 6 had developed wound infections.

Investigation had indicated that the wounds were becoming infected in the theatre, and cultures from the fluid of the theatre, anaesthetic room and changing room had repeatedly produced a heavy growth of *Staph. aureus*. The maintenance of gowns, masks, gloves and instruments had been maintained and the aseptic routine checked without any evidence of shortcomings being found. The accumulation of bottles and other rubbish and the taping of ads outside the theatre windows had been considered a possible source of infection and had been stopped, without influencing the rate of sepsis.

The problem was therefore to find out why staphylococci had been getting into the theatre and why they had persisted despite the usual cleaning and aseptic measures. An inspection of the theatre premises showed plenty of reasons for this state of affairs.

The layout of the theatre block at the time is shown in fig. 1. It had been the practice to do all major septic operations, such as the incision of abscesses, in the changing room, and to address all cases on the operating list requiring operations of parallel type from there or this room. Almost all the septic cases dealt with by the sick quarters were thus treated there. Access to the theatre from the changing room was through the dressing room. The dressing room was so small—it only measured 7 ft. x 11 ft.—that it was







plant. But such things are expensive and we felt that ventilation air from the outside coming in well above ground level at low velocity would be scrupulously safe. One of the large, high windows in the theatre and another in the dressing rooms have therefore been fitted with fine mesh fly screens. At present no flies are found, but even if an infestation has should be found necessary to remove screens from the dressing rooms I do not think this would be a source of danger with the air intake as described.

Other measures carried out include measures that all personnel entering into the theatre wear theatre clothes and shoes and disposable masks and some rearrangements in the surgical wards.

The ward block consists of two 11-bed wards, one on top of the other with a gallery and two side wards each. One of the downstairs side wards is the nurse's cubicle. "Clean" and "dirty" cases had formerly been admitted to both wards and all dressings had been done in the wards.

The upstairs ward has been designated as "dirty" and the downstairs as "clean". The upstairs gallery and the remaining downstairs cubicle have been made into dressing rooms and in far as possible all dressings are done in them and not in the wards. Part of the downstairs ward now the door has been converted off as a "pre-op" and "recovery" room.

In the five months since these measures were carried out some 60 open operations have been done on "clean" cases, no wound infections have as yet occurred.

#### Discussion

The technique of theatre aseptic practice has evolved over the years from the whims of surgeons, the basic training of theatre nurses, the ideas of hospital architects and administrators and the common, sometimes a little cynical, of bacteriologists. How much is based on facts and how much on supposition? Which of our precautions are really important and which are unnecessary fads? It is difficult to say. But the experiences described above underline the importance of considering what the organisms which are getting into the wounds come from when dealing with an outbreak of infections.

It is well known that the air above us is not sterile and that if we pour our fingers on to an agar plate we shall be able to reproduce our "flora" with colonies of *Staph. aureus*. But I doubt whether the air—the uncontaminated, outdoor air—is often responsible for bringing organisms of sufficient pathogenicity into the hospital to sufficient numbers to be an important source of wound infection. Nor do the commensals on our skin seem much to be of our skin sterilisation technique is sound.

The answer is to be found in the "special" surgical units and hospitals which only deal with say orthopaedic deformities or heart tumours. In such units infections are rare, for the simple reason that they do not admit infected cases. It is the patient with cellulitis or a bad or too small or an infected piriformis sinus who brings the organisms into the hospital, it is the unfortunate

men whose burns are infected by flies who suppose that they are repulsed in sufficient numbers to infect any wound that is dressed in the ward. The winter seasoners with a plaster surgery ward of 14 beds in a civilian hospital in which were 2 patients with burns and 14 patients who had had "clean" plaster operations. Every patient had a hemolytic streptococcus infection of his burn or wound.

It is the control of this sort of affairs, and not the latest technique or the minute refinements of the "no touch" technique, that is essential if sepsis is to be prevented. In the Royal Naval hospitals we have gone a long way towards it by the provision of separate wards for "septic" and the use of special theatres and the full gown-and-glove technique for operating on them. Indeed, I think we are ahead of many civilian hospitals in this respect. But have we gone far enough? We would not dream of admitting a case of vesicles or vesicles fever into the septic ward, should we not, as Barber and Dutton (1934) have recently suggested, have isolation blocks for "septic" cases, each with an own doctor and a medical officer, nurse and staff who are equally excluded from the general wards and theatres? Is it fair to the man who is about to have a haemorrhoidectomy to put him—put because he is a "dirty" operation—in a bed next to the man with the serious wound above, thus ensuring that the pain of what is already a most unpleasant procedure is enhanced by infection of his wound?

Unfortunately the ideal of segregation is not so easy to achieve in practice as it is to write about it. But I think that, in the larger hospitals at least, a good case could be made out for identifying the potentially septic cases such as transfusions and pain to special "transfusion" wards rather than lumping them in with the "clean" cases on the one hand or the already infected "septic" on the other. After all, it is patients with wounds with large raw areas, inaccessible to dressings, such as these who are potentially the biggest "bug factories."

Occasionally sepsis may be introduced into hospitals by other means than the suppurating lesions of patients. Trismus and gas gangrene may be introduced by the fist of one who suspects his firm before coming in to hospital, or by infected materials. The only case of gas gangrene I have seen was in an elderly man whose leg was amputated for arterial insufficiency. The operation was performed under nitrous oxide analgesia, as he lay dying from gas gangrene of the arm; I remember looking out of the ward window and watching the old lady brought into the hospital—in a dirty, muslin-bound, horse-drawn drag.

#### Conclusions

These experiences are recorded in the hope that they may be of some help to others who are unfortunate enough to be confronted with outbreaks of wound sepsis. One's natural reaction when faced with such outbreaks is to examine critically the details of one's own septic ward and that of one's staff. The experiences described above suggest that, while this is, of course,

important, a search for the source of the organisms is often more probable than trying to find out just how they got into the wound.

I wish to express my thanks to the many medical officers, nurses and others who have helped to tackle these problems, and to the staffs of the two theatres concerned and in particular Major J. Dalman for setting the high standard of theatre aseptic technique which has brought them under control.

#### SUMMARY

Outbreaks of wound infection in a Royal Naval Hospital and a Royal Naval Base Quarters are described. In both cases the wounds were infected in the theatre, in one case an infected bottle of Carmide was responsible and in the other an unsatisfactory theatre sink layout.

Scrub vases are suggested as keeping organisms out of the theatres and wards.

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## THE PATTERN OF THE INFLUENZA OUTBREAK IN THE PORTSMOUTH NAVAL COMMAND, 1957-8

BY

Surgeon Commander F. K. FRASER, R.N., Dr L. A. HATCH  
and Dr E. E. A. BUSHBY

In May, 1957 influenza A virus was isolated from an outbreak of mild but typical influenza in Hong Kong and Singapore. Subsequently large outbreaks of influenza were reported from other parts of Asia, the Pacific area, North and South America, the Middle East and Europe.

Influenza was expected to appear in this country during the summer and it was decided to investigate its effect on the personnel of the Command. It is the practice here to admit patients with upper respiratory infections to a special unit and follow up studies are done where possible. The essential mobility of the service precludes this in all cases but a considerable number were so followed.

#### CLINICAL METHODS

The admission system of patients resembled that previously described (Fraser, 1953), except that great over-crowding was unavoidable.

From the Department of Pathology, R.N. Hospital, Haslar and the Central Public Health Laboratory, Portsmouth.

From the middle of September an X-ray of the chest of all patients was taken immediately before discharge from hospital. Initially those with positive radiological findings were allowed to return to duty and were followed by weekly X-rays. Later, all patients with radiological signs in the chest were retained in hospital until these had disappeared.

All patients were treated with one tablet sodium ox. B.P. and 3 grams of soluble aspirin three daily. Those with chest symptoms received special instructions. Antibiotics were given only for complications.

#### Laboratory Methods

Paired sera, consisting of serum taken on the first ten days of illness and serum taken two weeks or more later, were obtained from many of the cases admitted. These sera, by a method similar to that described by Henshew and his group (1956), were also obtained from many of them. Sera was stored at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  and they were tested in a complement fixation test by a method closely resembling that described by Andrews and his colleagues (1956) against smaller amounts of influenza A, B and C antisera, pertussis and *R. typhi*. In addition, each serum was tested against the seroprecipin M.G. suspension in an agglutination test. Fourfold or greater rises in titre between the first and second serum samples were considered significant, while falls were disregarded.

Throat swabs, which had been stored at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  or lower, were tested in Hells cell tissue culture, and examined in eggs for the presence of infectious virus by the method described by Henshew and his group (1956) except that, owing to the type of equipment available, considerable modifications of temperature and handling occurred.

A few pairs of sera, considered positive by complement fixation tests, were tested by haemagglutination (WHO Technical Report Series No. 44 (1953)) against a Schweikert's, a Dutch 50 strain and several 'Asian' strains of influenza A virus.

#### Findings

The patients with influenza showed a remarkably uniform clinical picture with pyrexia, flushed sweating skin, tightness in the chest, headache, a short non-productive cough, general myalgia and headache. Coryza, rhinorrhoea and hoarse disphonia were minimal. Most cases showed slight redness of the throat without exudate or vesicular swelling. It had travelling of whom 4 were subsequently confirmed serologically as influenza A. Suppurative sinusitis and middle ear infection were rarely seen.

The first patient with clinical influenza was admitted from a transport from Cyprus on 1st August. Next day the first patient from the Command was admitted: he had not been out of the country and had had no known contact with one recently returned from abroad. From 2nd August to 17th August, 19 cases of mild acute upper respiratory infection were admitted.

7 of these were found to have either streptococcal pharyngitis or Vincent's infection and 11 were undiagnosed. Subsequently 2 pairs of men were tested from the last group and one was found positive for influenza A. 52 further cases were admitted up to 31st August. 16 had streptococcal or Vincent's infections, and of the remainder 16 were tested serologically and 12 had influenza A.

In September, cases of influenza were widely scattered throughout the Community and it was deemed that where medical facilities were adequate centres would improve accommodation for these few people. This hospital continued to admit to capacity from the isolating centre. During this month 244 patients were admitted. Streptococcal and Vincent's infections accounted for 11, and 126 more considered to be influenza. From the latter 129 pairs of sera were examined, 112 were positive for influenza A, 1 for adenovirus and 16 were negative.

126 patients were admitted in October and all were considered to have influenza. 179 pairs of sera from them were examined. 157 were positive for influenza A and 22 were negative. By the end of this month, the outbreak was considered to be abating.

The pattern of infection remained unchanged during the first three weeks of November. 32 patients were admitted. 16 had streptococcal or Vincent's infections, 34 had influenza and 8 had tonsillitis. 15 of 21 patients with clinical influenza were confirmed serologically as influenza A. One of the 8 cases of tonsillitis was considered serologically to have had influenza A and another, influenza C.

The clinical picture changed abruptly during the last week in November when a further outbreak occurred in Centre C. Here the secret population was most affected. Over 200 men were involved and they had been in the centre for a few weeks only and had no history of upper respiratory illness even they had been there. Clinically, the tonsils were grossly enlarged and inflamed, but not pusulent; this was accompanied by marked cough and rhinorrhoea. 17 were admitted to hospital and 12 were shown serologically to have influenza A. In addition 24 patients with similar symptoms were admitted from other centres. 3 had streptococcal or Vincent's infections and 21 influenza. 7 of 15 examined were confirmed serologically. These cases appeared to be highly infectious to the staff, most of whom had not been ill during the earlier part of the outbreak. A few of the staff who fell ill had had influenza vaccine some weeks before but no laboratory investigations were made.

Although Christmas leave began in December, 87 patients were admitted during that month. 12 had streptococcal or Vincent's infections and 60 clinical influenza. 46 of 67 examined were confirmed serologically as influenza A.

In January 1964, 60 patients were admitted of whom, streptococcal and Vincent's infections accounted for 11, glandular fever 1, and clinical influenza

for 46. Of 41 pairs of sera tested, 22 were positive for influenza A, 1 for influenza C, 1 for A. haemolytic, 3 for adenovirus and 10 were negative. One patient showed significant rises in titre to influenza A and C.

From the end of September 270 chest X-rays were taken immediately before discharge. 23 showed a picture which became recognized as typically post-influenzal and presented as a 'soft, diffuse homogeneous shadowing with ill-defined edges varying considerably in size and extent'.

17 patients developed pneumonia in hospital and a further 29 patients were admitted with this diagnosis. One died and at autopsy confluent bronchopneumonia with mixed viruses was found. No pulmonary lesions or viruses were recovered from the lungs or upper respiratory tract.

During the six months in which 754 cases of influenza were admitted, 463 pairs of sera were examined. Of these 336 (95 per cent) showed significant rises in titre against influenza A, 4 against adenovirus, 3 against influenza C and 1 against influenza A and C when tested by complement-fixation. 23 pairs of sera which showed significant rises against soluble A antigens were found to be haemagglutination inhibition test. These were obtained from each of the smaller centres where clinical influenza had been reported and were chiefly from those men who fell ill early in each outbreak. 47 of them showed fourfold or greater rises against one or more Asian strains of influenza A. During these tests it was noticed that there was comparatively little rubellina of the Asian strain A/Hong Kong/1/57 and A/Singapore/1/57 and that in many instances no change in titre were found. When these sera were tested against A/England/128/57 a significant rise in titre between acute and convalescent sera were apparent. The last virus was isolated from throat swabbing obtained from a schoolboy who fell ill near Salisbury in September, and has been shown to resemble the 'Asian' strains of virus (M. S. Petrus, personal communication).

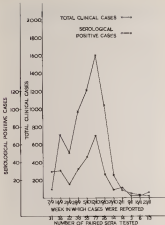
From 53 throat swabs which were examined in eggs, 11 strains of influenza A virus were isolated. Each was confirmed and shown to resemble the 'Asian' group (M. S. Petrus, personal communication). Each of 73 throat swabs received was tested in Hahn cell tissue culture but no virus was isolated.

6814 clinical cases of influenza were reported from the Command between 7th September and 12th November, representing an attack rate of roughly 1 in 4. The distribution of these, together with the weekly totals of those confirmed serologically as influenza A, are shown on the graph according to the week in which they reported sick. The pattern of infection is that of the large establishment as shown in Table 1, which indicates the weekly totals of those who reported sick, with acute upper respiratory infections.

Table 1.—NUMBER OF FLU CASES REPORTED EACH WEEK FROM THREE ESTABLISHMENTS

Week ending	7/9	14/9	21/9	28/9	5/10	12/10	19/10	26/10	2/11	9/11	16/11	23/11
Centre A	68	145	144	116	75	70	34	11	7	7	8	54
Centre B	—	4	45	120	205	84	17	11	15	12	4	8
Centre C	—	11	55	75	87	98	34	6	6	8	5	8





## DISCUSSION

During the early part of the outbreak few patients complained of sore throat, and conjunctivitis was seldom found. The clinical picture changed at the end of November so that it resembled the findings of Holland (1957) properly that sore throat was present in about two thirds of the cases of influenza which occurred in certain R.A.F. stations between 14th August and 2nd October.

Between 7th September and 23rd November, 3.5 per cent. of the cases admitted to the wards developed clinical pneumonia and 6 per cent. had radiological signs of lung infiltration. These findings are similar to those recorded in Singapore (Lee *et al.* 1957). About 10 per cent. of all clinical cases of influenza were considered sufficiently ill to require admission to hospital and at least 6 per cent. had clinical or radiological signs in the chest during the same period.

The serological tests on 227 patients who did not give significant rises in titre to influenza A indicated that identifiable virus infections other than influenza A were responsible for very little disease. Many of this group had titres greater than 1/320 against influenza A and the failure to detect cases was due possibly to the time at which the sera were taken. Although they have been excluded, they supplement the impression that the clinical diagnosis and laboratory findings were in close agreement.

A smaller outbreak of influenza A had occurred in the first quarter of 1957 in this Command. 21 cases were confirmed serologically and 70 (with 56) strains of influenza A virus were isolated from 5 of 6 throat swabs. The clinical picture consisted of pyrexia, flushed sweating skin, chattering, cough and nasal discharge. 2 patients had pneumonia. 12 cases represented the total morbidity in a closed group of over 500 men. The outbreak was sharply defined and the clinical cases were seen over a comparatively short period.

During the 1957 autumn outbreak the greatest number of cases were seen over a period of about ten weeks from 7th September to about 2nd November. About 60 fresh cases were seen in each of November, December and January. This shows that the outbreak lasted for at least six months, although most of the clinical cases occurred in September and October with an attack rate of about 1 in 4 in the two months. It seems reasonable to suppose that most of the Command were susceptible to this strain of virus and that the typical pattern of an infectious disease in a susceptible population was followed. By the end of the winter probably most of the potential at risk will have been infected. Since only five months had elapsed between the appearance of the new antigenic strain of influenza A in Asia and the outbreak with such a high incidence of cases, it is doubtful whether sufficient 'new strain' vaccine is possible; the majority of such a population could have been prepared during the time.

The observation of the change in the clinical picture shown by the cases in Centre C at the end of November is interesting. Laboratory investigations

did not indicate that any change in the virus had occurred, yet the appearance of gross inflammation of the tonsils with other signs of nasopharyngeal inflammation indicated that the infection had changed to resemble more closely the clinical picture found in the R.A.F. some two months earlier.

#### Summary

An outbreak of influenza A occurred in the Royal Navy, Portsmouth Command, during the period August 1957, to January, 1958, with the peak incidence of cases occurring between the second week in September and the third week in October. During this period some 4,000 cases were reported with an attack rate of about 1 in 4.

Most cases showed typical symptoms of influenza with pyrexia, headache, cough and general myalgia. In some cases during November a change in the clinical picture occurred and cases presented with gross inflammation of the tonsils, corpus and rhinorrhoea.

625 pairs of sera from 314 cases admitted to hospital were examined in complement-fixation tests. 358 (57 per cent) showed significant change in titre against influenza A, 4 against adenovirus, 9 against influenza C and one against influenza A and C.

15 strains of influenza A virus were isolated in eggs from 33 clinical results, and have subsequently been confirmed and shown to resemble the 'Asian' group.

The incidence of pneumonia and other complications was no higher than other workers have reported and only one death occurred.

#### Acknowledgements

We are indebted to the Medical Director-General of the Navy for permission to publish. We wish to thank Sick Berth Petty Officer J. A. Williams, Mr J. Piddell, A.I.M.L.T., and Miss J. Farmer, F.I.M.L.T., for their technical assistance and Miss F. Schaeck, B.Sc., for preparing the graphs.

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HOLLAND, W. (1957) *Lancet*, **ii**, 140.  
LEE, S. A., BROWN, A., HALL, J. H., and GAZDAR, J. (1957) *Lancet*, **ii**, 791.  
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### ROYAL NAVY MEDICAL CLUB

A meeting, party was held, on Friday 15th October, 1959, in the Hall of the Royal College of Surgeons, Lincoln's Inn Fields.

There was a most enjoyable function attended by some 250 members, their ladies and guests.

The guests who were received by Surgeon Vice-Admiral Sir Cyril and Lady May included Sir James Palmerston Ross, Vice-Admiral Sir Jeffrey Robson and Lady Robson, Vice-Admiral D. E. Holland Martin, Sir John Long, Miss Barbara Nickolls, Miss Katherine Unwin and Mrs. Katherine Richard.

Members present included The Right Honourable The Lord Devon, Sir Desmond Curran, Mr. F. Wadysu-Thomas, Mr. F. Vaughan-Jackson, Mr. H. Jackson Barrow, Dr. W. D. W. Beech, Sir Alan Rawlands, Surgeon Rear-Admiral H. R. B. Hall, Surgeon Rear-Admiral F. G. Hunt, Surgeon Rear-Admiral S. G. Mansfield, Surgeon Rear-Admiral R. L. G. Proctor, Surgeon Rear-Admiral W. R. S. Pennington, Surgeon Rear-Admiral C. Phillips, Surgeon Rear-Admiral (R) C. J. Ferguson, Mr. H. V. Green and Mr. T. Dixon.

### ANNUAL DINNER

The next annual dinner of the Royal Medical Club will take place on Friday, 26th April, 1959.

### Reviews

**THE PROPERTIES AND PRACTICE OF MEDICINE.** By Sir Francis Dainton, M.D., F.R.C.P. (Ed.), F.R.C.P. (Lond.), M.D. (Edin.). Fourth Edition. Pp. xx + 1840 with 511 plates and 41 figures. Edinburgh and London: E. & S. Livingston Limited. Price 12s. 6d. Hardt, postpaid 12s. 6d.

This very popular textbook already in its fourth edition is an ideal manual to keep near with the rapid advances in medical knowledge but despite added material is smaller and more compact than its predecessor.

The contents which are based on the wide clinical experience of the Senior Staff of the Department of Medicine, at Edinburgh University are laid, essentially practical, out, for each a comprehensive textbook, most available in an important way.

The authors' pre-emptory desire and an acknowledgment of their special merit on the book is well written, well printed and is light in the hand and in the pocket. It can be fully recommended.

E. D. C.

**DIAGNOSIS OF THE NERVOUS SYSTEM.** By Sir Francis Wadley, M.D., D.Sc., F.R.C. With chapters on The Neurological Complications of Liver Disease and Hepatobiliary Depression, by F. M. Wadley, M.B., Ch.B. Ninth Edition. Pp. xvi + 575 with 49 illustrations. Edinburgh and London: E. & S. Livingston Limited. Price 6s. 6d.

The first volume of the expanded textbook by one of the world's most distinguished neurologists appeared only a few years ago, and yet since 1940 there have been a further eight volumes published, in addition to revised and expanded ones. French, German and Italian. The

its study, an indication of the extent and popularity of this extremely useful text, but such is its massive subject matter, that, as a clinical neurology text it was never so handy as the many of the publications of almost instantaneous insight so needed in grasping the progress of neurology. The author has kept the book up to date and put finishing the text in alphabetical order. He has done this work at intervals of only 30 pages in the new edition, which seems an oddity here, but is still very cheap in these days of expensive medical textbooks.

In the first part of the book (which is a former volume dealt with *The General Principles of Neurological Examination*) there are a few changes, including the addition of a new summary on the so-called Brain Stem. A summary follows a review of modern opinions concerning the control of respiration and tone, and the functions of the brain, with hypothalamus and cerebral cortex in the mechanism of consciousness, or the production of some vital sleep.

The main part of the book which comprises a *Descriptive Account of the Motor System* (Division of the Nervous System), contains two new chapters contributed by the author (see Dr J. M. Wright of Cambridge University) on the neurological complications of liver disease and haemolysin-like substances (Wilson's disease). The important chapter on *Yeastlike Disorders of the Brain* has been largely rewritten incorporating the latest information on medical neurophysiology with reference to international nomenclature suggested and approved at the Council and Society of Vienna. Out of three new chapters one in the book now refers to the entire vascular system, and the other is one of the new added chapters.

In the new edition, the satisfactory high standard of appearance and presentation is maintained, but it is better when it is necessary to omit a number of pages in order to maintain the subject matter without adding to the size of the book, namely the final chapter on the Scheme of Examination of the Nervous System, is hardly needed as a textbook of this nature. Other minor revisions permitted are the reference to the conversion of various units in the range of certain nerve conduction, such as the importance of the corticospinal tract in the function of post-contractile coordination, and of the hypnotic drugs in the various psychophysics and neurophysiology. In the subject on *Alcoholism* there is also no mention in the writings of specialists such as Polgar and Marlow according to some authorities that food, sometimes cause today and the anticholinergic drugs such as hexameth, both of which could be mentioned in the aspect of various and other subsequent forms of therapy.

This book will however, continue to remain an essential for all clinical neurology both before and after publication, and the readers whether the author will find it necessary to produce a further edition or not another day just now.

L. D. T.

THE FORTRESS, UNIVERSITY OF YORKSHIRE MEDICAL, By R. Renshaw, F.R.C.S., M.B.C.E., D.F.C.P. (D.R.C.O.G.) Surgeon in Charge, Newcastle Vets Clinic, Herriot Hospital, PO Box 122, York YO1 1JH (Hull Road, Edinburgh and London H. & E. Langman Limited) Price 15s 0d net.

This is a book of practical instructions for physiotherapists and nurses concerned with the treatment of trauma and various disorders. In the first part the author explains of these disorders are briefly described and simply described, together with the various influences that produce them. The part played by the physiotherapist is defined.

In Part II aspects of research by various types of instruments, by special methods of massage and by physical measures are given. There is also a chapter dealing with information on the present methods of preventing recurrence of the treated sites.

This is an excellent manual on the physical treatment of various disorders, with all the detail required by the physiotherapist or nurse who deals with these conditions and dealing factors. The illustrations are clear and the style precise.

Practitioners dealing with these cases will find much of value in this book.

J. W.

**THE EYE.** By H. B. Bedford, *M.P.S., M.D., F.R.C.S.* Hon. L. D. Surgeon, The Moorfields Eye Hospital, the Surgeon to Moorfields Eye Hospital, Late Pathologist and Curator The Moorfields Eye Hospital Eye Surgery, Institute Ophthalmic and Moorfields Hospital Office of the Officer of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, Major R.A.M.C. (T.A.). Third Edition. Pp. xx+595 with 211 diagrams. Bound John Wright and Sons Limited. Price 55s. 6d.

The first edition of this work appeared in 1944 at the conclusion of the Second World War. It fulfilled a lack in British ophthalmic literature which at that time contained no up-to-date book on ophthalmic surgery. The second edition which appeared in 1951 showed considerable modifications and improvements with a reduction in the amount of space devoted to text surgery. It soon became a favourite volume and the bedside companion of most young ophthalmic surgeons. The third edition which has just been published is different in that, as do the predecessors placed together, two contributions of the leading English eye surgeons to be largely due to the incorporation of more than one hundred additional illustrations. The third itself has not altogether great expansion but has improvements on operations, ocular growth, cornea lens implants, and radiographic therapy is included. The diagrams are clear and concise, and the inclusion of excellent new photographs and drawings has completed the comprehensiveness of the work, especially as regard the more of the more complicated procedures. In the description of a surgical operation a short series of diagrams, a series of pictures rather than a chapter of text present and the reader has left but little to the imagination of his mind.

The reader will find that the descriptions and advice given are often examples of perfection as indeed they are. He will also find that the illustrations support in their carefully arranged and ordered forms, some with scores to a wealth of operational equipment, which is often true to some degree. But the principles, important, which wherever the surgeon uses, and the practice given towards a goal which, while it may not be reached, cannot but help the reader through his efforts to achieve it. The book is carefully produced and forms a personal message and message in ophthalmic surgery from an expert guided teacher, who is internationally acknowledged as one of the great technical masters of our time.

D. P. G.

**THE CONSTITUTION OF THE ABO AND RH SYSTEM GROUPS FOR TRANSFUSION.** Medical Research Council Memorandum No. 34 (Division of War Memorandum No. 3). Pp. vi+44. London: H.M. Stationery Office. Price 3s. 4d.

This is a revision of the 1943 Memorandum which has become obsolete by reason of the new methods associated in the serology. The present Memorandum which is more than twice the length of the former one, gives a concise account of all the phenomena to be adopted in transfusion work, whether straightforward or complicated by previous transfusions, pregnancy, leucocyte reaction, etc. There are adequate descriptions of the current methods of ABO and crossed Rh group determinations, cross matching of donors and recipients blood, serological of transfusion reactions and possible theories of a cross in blood group determinations.

It is not possible to make the technique of blood transfusion thoroughly helpful but these instructions probably cover as near as that which is possible in the present state. It seems unnecessary to cite any instance of a death by such a disregarded item as this one but the reviewer cannot help feeling a little uneasy about two points.

In view of the repeated reports of its cause due to the transfusion of related blood, one would have preferred to find a more conservative but reference included in the statements before transfusion rather than left for the investigators after a reaction has occurred.

It is stated by M.D. that several transfusions are to be given at a space of two or three days direct transfusion must be done with serum obtained before the first transfusion. The

is on the grounds that antibodies present in the patient's serum might be absorbed if the first lot of cells were unacceptable. Maybe so, but in that case two days is quite long enough for the patient to develop antibodies that were not there at the first place. Perhaps it would be better after ten days to do direct titrating with fresh serum as well as the original sample.

Then Microtransfusion is an absolute necessity for anyone who has the responsibility of saving blood for transfusion, and it should be kept within reach of the laboratory bench at all times. It is also highly desirable that every transfusion service should work in a routine based on the instructions given therein.

D. D. W.

**We acknowledge with thanks receipt of the following publications:**

*Acta Medica Et Biologica, Acta Et Evolutio In Medicina, Annuarium, Annuaire Medicum, Annuaire Fennae, Annals of Tropical Medicine and Parasitology, British Medical Journal, Bulletin of the World Health Organization, Clinica et the World Health Organization, El Torero, Epileptologia, Journal of Medical Science, Mayo Hospital Gazette, International Commission of Medical Medicine and Pharmacology—The Journal of Comparative Medicine, Journal of the Royal Army Medical Corps, Journal of the Royal Naval Medical Service, Kyushu Journal of Medical Science, Medical Journal of Osaka University, Medico Hospital Journal, Military Medicine, National Medical Progress Journal of Medical Science, Osterreichische Medizinische Fortschritte, Proceedings of the Staff Meetings of the Army Clinic, Revue de Medecine, Revue, Revue Internationale des Sciences de Santé, Revue de Medecine, Revue de Medecine, In Medica, Medical Gazette, St. Thomas' Hospital Gazette, The Australian Journal of Experimental Biology and Medical Science, The British Journal of Surgery, The Royal Free Westminster Hospital, The Eastern Journal of Medical Sciences, The Journal of the Japanese Army School of Medicine, The Journal of the Army Medical Association, The Japanese Medical Journal, The Japanese Medical Journal, The Medical Press, The Medical Progress Hospital Year—Fourth Report, The Nishiku Journal of Experimental Medicine, The Oliver Medical Journal, Tropical Disease Bulletin, Abstracts of Japanese Medical Science, Tokyo Medical Bulletin, Tokyo Medical Journal.*

**BOOKS RECEIVED**

SYSTEMIC TETRACYCLIN WITH BENZYLAMINE CHLORIDE. By COMPANY and Co. Ltd. Manufacturing Chemicals, Ware, Herts. Caput available on request. Pp. 25 with illustrations.

## *Index of the Names*

### ONTARIO

Surgeon Rear-Admiral J. J. DUFFIN died on the 4th August 1955 at his home at Mississauga. He was 100 years of age.

John Jeffrey Dennis was born on 22nd April, 1878, the eldest son of Frederick and Clara (Dennis) E. M. He later changed his name to Dennis.

Admitted at McMaster School, Peterborough for three medical studies at Queen's University Medical School at Kingston. In 1900 he graduated M.D. M.Ch., and immediately entered the Royal Navy as a Surgeon. He was promoted to Staff Surgeon in 1902, First Surgeon in 1906, Deputy Hospital Commandant in 1907 and Surgeon General in 1913. He was placed on the Retired List in the rank of Surgeon Rear-Admiral in 1933.

Admiral Dennis was Surgeon of R.N.R. Tormentor during the operations in the Eastern Arctic 1904-5 for which he received the Distinguished Service Medal and the Distinguished Service Star. At the time he qualified as an ophthalmic surgeon.

Between 1917 and 1917 he served with the Naval Brigade during the Boer War, was Surgeon of the 1st and 2nd Divisions of the 1st and 2nd Divisions of the 1st Division. He received the India Medal, Bar, 1905 D.C.M.

Between 1917 and 1920 he served as R.N.R. Assistant Surgeon during the operations in Eastern Newfoundland, for which he received a medal and star.

In 1914 he Medical Officer-in-Charge of the Royal Naval Hospital, Malta. Admiral Dennis was appointed C.B. in recognition of his services during the First World War, and in 1917 he became a Commander of the Order of the Crown of Portugal.

Surgeon Captain J. S. JENNIFER (R.N. R.N.R.) died on the 29th June, 1955. Born on the 17th October, 1882, he qualified with the degree of M.B., B.S., in 1904 and entered the Royal Navy in 1905. Promoted Surgeon Lieutenant-Commander in 1918 and Surgeon Commander in 1925, he was placed on the Retired List in the rank of Surgeon Captain in 1932.

During World War I Surgeon Captain Jennifer served on H.M. Ships *Exe*, *Zeus* and *Colony*.

Surgeon Captain J. G. JONES (R.N. R.N.R.) died on the 29th August, 1955. Born on the 2nd May, 1881, he qualified with the degree of M.B., B.S., in 1904 and entered the Royal Navy in 1905. Promoted Surgeon Lieutenant-Commander in 1918, Surgeon Commander in 1924 and Surgeon Captain in 1934, he was placed on the Retired List in 1942 and re-promoted until retired Class. A in 1947.

During World War I Surgeon Captain Jones served on H.M. Ships *Tenacious*, *Excalibur*, *23 November* and at Malta Hospital Station.

During World War II he served on H.M. Hospitals, *Peterborough* and *Malta*, R.N. Ship *Chimera*, *Chimera*, R.N. Hospital *Chimera* and R.N. Hospital *Chimera*.

Surgeon Captain J. H. JAMESON (R.N. R.N.R.) died on the 2nd July, 1955. Born on the 2nd February, 1886, he qualified with the degree of M.B., B.S., in 1904 and



joined the Royal Navy as a Surgeon in 1829. Promoted Surgeon Lieutenant-Commander in 1844, Surgeon-Commander in 1848 and Surgeon-Captain in 1851, he was placed on the Retired List in 1858, and was promoted until retired (Class 3) in 1862.

During recent years I have enjoyed reading in *HM Magazine* George and Elizabeth's *HM Stories*, and in *Chatham Magazine*.

During World War II he served at Chatham Hospital, R. 79 Auxiliary Hospital, Norfolk, and R. 34, 35th Quartermaster, Isle of Man.

In July 1995 he was transferred to the Clinton Museum, a department for distinguished and wealthy individuals with 24,000 ft<sup>2</sup>.

Barrymore Captain G. F. SWANSON, R.N. (rank) died on the 27th August, 1958. Born on the 26th July 1889 he qualified with the degrees of 1st B.Sc., L.B.C.P., in 1905 and entered the Royal Navy as a Surgeon the same year. Promoted Surgeon Lieutenant-Commander in 1913 and Surgeon-Commander in 1917 he was placed on the Retired List on the death of Surgeon-General in 1936.

During World War II Sergeant Captain Walsh served at H Q. 8th Bomber Division, Bangalore and Germany.

He was unemployed during World War II and served at Chatham Barometer and H. H. Goodwin & Son.

Surgeon Lieutenant-Commander (R.N.) S. GARDNER, R.N., died on the 12th September, 1920. Born on the 28th September, 1859, he qualified with the degree of B.Sc. in 1882, and entered the Royal Navy as a Temporary Surgeon. General Officer in 1916 and retired 1920. *See 1920.*

Sergeant Lawrence Commander Gary received the Royal Navy as a Sergeant Lieutenant Commander (DL) for four years. When Service Commission in 1956 and was promoted a further four years' Short Service Commission from May, 1958. At the time of his death he was serving as RSM, Marlborough School.

Figure 1 consists of two bar charts. The left chart is titled 'All respondents' and the right chart is titled 'Respondents who have been personally affected by the economic crisis'. Both charts show the percentage of respondents for four levels of agreement with the statement 'The government should do more to help people who are struggling financially'. The y-axis represents the percentage, ranging from 0 to 100. The x-axis lists the levels of agreement: Strongly agree, Somewhat agree, Somewhat disagree, and Strongly disagree.

Level of Agreement	All respondents (%)	Respondents who have been personally affected by the economic crisis (%)
Strongly agree	~65	~75
Somewhat agree	~25	~20
Somewhat disagree	~8	~5
Strongly disagree	~2	~0

**0-0**—**Navigation Commander P. C. Russell R. 26**

1978-1979, 1980-1981, 1981-1982, 1982-1983, 1983-1984, 1984-1985, 1985-1986, 1986-1987, 1987-1988, 1988-1989, 1989-1990, 1990-1991, 1991-1992, 1992-1993, 1993-1994, 1994-1995, 1995-1996, 1996-1997, 1997-1998, 1998-1999, 1999-2000, 2000-2001, 2001-2002, 2002-2003, 2003-2004, 2004-2005, 2005-2006, 2006-2007, 2007-2008, 2008-2009, 2009-2010, 2010-2011, 2011-2012, 2012-2013, 2013-2014, 2014-2015, 2015-2016, 2016-2017, 2017-2018, 2018-2019, 2019-2020, 2020-2021, 2021-2022, 2022-2023, 2023-2024, 2024-2025, 2025-2026, 2026-2027, 2027-2028, 2028-2029, 2029-2030, 2030-2031, 2031-2032, 2032-2033, 2033-2034, 2034-2035, 2035-2036, 2036-2037, 2037-2038, 2038-2039, 2039-2040, 2040-2041, 2041-2042, 2042-2043, 2043-2044, 2044-2045, 2045-2046, 2046-2047, 2047-2048, 2048-2049, 2049-2050, 2050-2051, 2051-2052, 2052-2053, 2053-2054, 2054-2055, 2055-2056, 2056-2057, 2057-2058, 2058-2059, 2059-2060, 2060-2061, 2061-2062, 2062-2063, 2063-2064, 2064-2065, 2065-2066, 2066-2067, 2067-2068, 2068-2069, 2069-2070, 2070-2071, 2071-2072, 2072-2073, 2073-2074, 2074-2075, 2075-2076, 2076-2077, 2077-2078, 2078-2079, 2079-2080, 2080-2081, 2081-2082, 2082-2083, 2083-2084, 2084-2085, 2085-2086, 2086-2087, 2087-2088, 2088-2089, 2089-2090, 2090-2091, 2091-2092, 2092-2093, 2093-2094, 2094-2095, 2095-2096, 2096-2097, 2097-2098, 2098-2099, 2099-2100, 2100-2101, 2101-2102, 2102-2103, 2103-2104, 2104-2105, 2105-2106, 2106-2107, 2107-2108, 2108-2109, 2109-2110, 2110-2111, 2111-2112, 2112-2113, 2113-2114, 2114-2115, 2115-2116, 2116-2117, 2117-2118, 2118-2119, 2119-2120, 2120-2121, 2121-2122, 2122-2123, 2123-2124, 2124-2125, 2125-2126, 2126-2127, 2127-2128, 2128-2129, 2129-2130, 2130-2131, 2131-2132, 2132-2133, 2133-2134, 2134-2135, 2135-2136, 2136-2137, 2137-2138, 2138-2139, 2139-2140, 2140-2141, 2141-2142, 2142-2143, 2143-2144, 2144-2145, 2145-2146, 2146-2147, 2147-2148, 2148-2149, 2149-2150, 2150-2151, 2151-2152, 2152-2153, 2153-2154, 2154-2155, 2155-2156, 2156-2157, 2157-2158, 2158-2159, 2159-2160, 2160-2161, 2161-2162, 2162-2163, 2163-2164, 2164-2165, 2165-2166, 2166-2167, 2167-2168, 2168-2169, 2169-2170, 2170-2171, 2171-2172, 2172-2173, 2173-2174, 2174-2175, 2175-2176, 2176-2177, 2177-2178, 2178-2179, 2179-2180, 2180-2181, 2181-2182, 2182-2183, 2183-2184, 2184-2185, 2185-2186, 2186-2187, 2187-2188, 2188-2189, 2189-2190, 2190-2191, 2191-2192, 2192-2193, 2193-2194, 2194-2195, 2195-2196, 2196-2197, 2197-2198, 2198-2199, 2199-2200, 2200-2201, 2201-2202, 2202-2203, 2203-2204, 2204-2205, 2205-2206, 2206-2207, 2207-2208, 2208-2209, 2209-2210, 2210-2211, 2211-2212, 2212-2213, 2213-2214, 2214-2215, 2215-2216, 2216-2217, 2217-2218, 2218-2219, 2219-2220, 2220-2221, 2221-2222, 2222-2223, 2223-2224, 2224-2225, 2225-2226, 2226-2227, 2227-2228, 2228-2229, 2229-2230, 2230-2231, 2231-2232, 2232-2233, 2233-2234, 2234-2235, 2235-2236, 2236-2237, 2237-2238, 2238-2239, 2239-2240, 2240-2241, 2241-2242, 2242-2243, 2243-2244, 2244-2245, 2245-2246, 2246-2247, 2247-2248, 2248-2249, 2249-2250, 2250-2251, 2251-2252, 2252-2253, 2253-2254, 2254-2255, 2255-2256, 2256-2257, 2257-2258, 2258-2259, 2259-2260, 2260-2261, 2261-2262, 2262-2263, 2263-2264, 2264-2265, 2265-2266, 2266-2267, 2267-2268, 2268-2269, 2269-2270, 2270-2271, 2271-2272, 2272-2273, 2273-2274, 2274-2275, 2275-2276, 2276-2277, 2277-2278, 2278-2279, 2279-2280, 2280-2281, 2281-2282, 2282-2283, 2283-2284, 2284-2285, 2285-2286, 2286-2287, 2287-2288, 2288-2289, 2289-2290, 2290-2291, 2291-2292, 2292-2293, 2293-2294, 2294-2295, 2295-2296, 2296-2297, 2297-2298, 2298-2299, 2299-2300, 2300-2301, 2301-2302, 2302-2303, 2303-2304, 2304-2305, 2305-2306, 2306-2307, 2307-2308, 2308-2309, 2309-2310, 2310-2311, 2311-2312, 2312-2313, 2313-2314, 2314-2315, 2315-2316, 2316-2317, 2317-2318, 2318-2319, 2319-2320, 2320-2321, 2321-2322, 2322-2323, 2323-2324, 2324-2325, 2325-2326, 2326-2327, 2327-2328, 2328-2329, 2329-2330, 2330-2331, 2331-2332, 2332-2333, 2333-2334, 2334-2335, 2335-2336, 2336-2337, 2337-2338, 2338-2339, 2339-2340, 2340-2341, 2341-2342, 2342-2343, 2343-2344, 2344-2345, 2345-2346, 2346-2347, 2347-2348, 2348-2349, 2349-2350, 2350-2351, 23

[illegible]

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THE JOURNAL OF THE POLYMER SOCIETY

Supplies (continued) — W. Alderson, N. J. Blacklock, T. E. W. Hampton, E. T. Holselt,  
D. B. E. Nichols

**ENTERING FROM EUROPE WITHOUT A VISA**

[illegible]

**RETIREMENTS**

Surgeon Rear Admiral E. T. S. Radd, C.B. C.B.E.  
 Surgeon Captain F. R. Stirling.  
 Surgeon Commander F. G. V. Sewell, J. Carlow.

**APPOINTMENTS IN THE NAVAL RECRUITING SERVICE**

[First Medical Commission Officers]

Mastercraftsmen—Surgeon Commander E. M. Dutton, R.N. Ret., rose Surgeon Captain  
 H. A. B. Parker, R.N. Ret.—in September 1958.

**COMBINE****APPOINTMENT OF HOUSE GOVERNOR**

With the approval of Her Majesty The Queen, the Master of Works (The Right Hon. Hugh Molloy, M.P.) has appointed Surgeon Rear Admiral E. T. S. Radd, C.B. C.B.E., R.A., M.B., B.Sc., F.R.C.S.(Ed.) to be House Governor and Medical Superintendent of King Edward VII Development House for Officers at Osborne Isle of Wight, in succession to Lt-Gen. Sir Noel Curzon, F.R.S., F.R.C.S., M.C., F.R.C.S. Admiral Radd will take up his appointment on 1st November 1958.

**WARDMASTER OFFICERS****PROMOTIONS**

To Acting Wardmaster Sub Lieutenant—1. Murray (13754)

**RETIREMENT**

Wardmaster Lieutenant Commander D. C. Reider.

**QUEEN ALEXANDRA'S ROYAL NAVAL NURSING SERVICE****PROMOTIONS**

To Superintending Nurse—Miss S. E. Cox.

To Senior Nursing Sister—Miss V. M. Cleave, Miss F. M. M. Gauder, Miss B. Hunter,  
 Miss F. K. Howe.

**TRANSFERS TO PERMANENT LIST**

Miss S. R. F. Burns, Miss M. E. Colles, Miss R. F. Fry, Miss H. E. K. Gauder, Miss  
 A. B. Robinson.

**ENTRIES FOR SHORT SERVICE COMMISSION**

Miss J. C. C. Baxter, Miss F. D. I. Boyce-Johnson, Miss A. B. L. Cook, Miss F. D. Ford,  
 Miss J. A. Franklin, Miss D. W. F. Hart, Miss E. A. Hodgson, Miss F. B. Newton.

**TRANSFERS TO SHORT SERVICE COMMISSION**

Miss D. E. Aubin, Miss A. Dunbar, Miss N. B. Wallington.

**RETIREMENTS**

Miss I. A. L. Rafter, A.S.R.C., Superintending Nurse/Matron.

Miss J. B. Aikens, A.S.R.C., Superintending Nurse.

## ADMIRALTY FLEET ORDERS—1956

*(This year is prefixed for flag)*

- 1499.—Surgcons and Agents.
- 1718.—Dental.—*Manual of the International Classification of Diseases, Injuries and Causes of Death* (1948)—Vols. I and II.
- 1719.—Dental.—F Med 152.—*Manual of Drug Courses—Administration*.
- 1720.—Medical.—Treatments.—*Contemporary of Medical Treatment on British Inland and Coast of Leeward Settlements in Civilian Service of Service Medical History—Introduction of B Med 122 and F Med 124—Appendix of Form 54 100*.
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